DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 387 909 EA 027 105

AUTHOR Daresh, John C.; Playko, Marsha A.
TITLE Alternative Career Formation Perspectives: Lessons for Educational Leadership from Law, Medicine, and Training for the Priesthood.
PUB DATE Oct 95
NOTE 54p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the University Council for Educational Administration (Salt Lake City, UT, October 1995).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Viewpoints (Opinion/Position Papers, Essays, etc.) (120) -- Information Analyses (070)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Education; Codes of Ethics; *Educational Administration; Graduate Study; Higher Education; Law Schools; Leadership Training; *Legal Education (Professions); *Medical Schools; *Professional Development; Professional Occupations; Socialization; *Theological Education

ABSTRACT

One of the suggestions for improving the professional development of school leaders is to adopt some of the practices used in other professional fields. This paper explores three models of professional development traditionally followed in medicine, law, and the Catholic priesthood to assess the extent to which these approaches are likely to improve the preparation of aspiring school administrators. A review of literature for the following areas is presented first: the needs of beginning principals; the nature of ongoing professional development for educational administrators; preparation programs for other professions; and sociological analyses of professional occupations. A conclusion is that the medical, legal, and priestly models share the following characteristics: focus, selectivity, commitment, and intensity. Each of the models is directed toward a clear focus and well-identified roles, and each exercises great selectivity in terms of student selection and retention, clinical sites, faculty selection, and program assessment. Each requires new members to make public statements of personal commitment and to engage in a full-time, intensive pursuit of the profession. The paper does not advocate the wholesale adoption of one professional-preparation model, but instead proposes that educational administration be thought of as a profession. And, if it is a profession, is school leadership really valued as a way to improve the effectiveness of schools? Appendices contain examples of a law-school and a medical-school plan of studies. Two figures are included. (Contains 84 references.) (LMI)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED 387 909

ALTERNATIVE CAREER FORMATION PERSPECTIVES: LESSONS FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FROM LAW, MEDICINE, AND TRAINING FOR THE PRIESTHOOD

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
✓ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
J. Daresh
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)"

by

John C. Daresh
Professor
Department of Educational Administration and Foundations
Illinois State University
Normal, Illinois 61790
(309) 438-2058
jcdares@ilstu.edu

and

Marsha A. Playko
Principal
Hazelwood Elementary School
50 O'Bannon Avenue
Newark, Ohio 43055
(614) 349-2367

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the University Council for Educational Administration
Salt Lake City, Utah
October, 1995

EA 027 105

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ALTERNATIVE CAREER FORMATION PERSPECTIVES: LESSONS FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FROM LAW, MEDICINE, AND TRAINING FOR THE PRIESTHOOD

As discussions continue to take place regarding ways in which educational practice may be improved through a redefinition of educational leadership, a considerable amount of dialogue has been centered on identifying more effective ways to prepare people to serve as school principals, superintendents, and other formal educational leaders. As evidence of this, the Danforth Foundation launched a major initiative designed to support innovative principal preparation programs (Gresso, 1986), the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) sponsored a review of the ways in which school administrators are being prepared across the nation (Griffiths, Stout, & Forsyth, 1986), the National Policy Board for Educational Administration was created, and numerous states across the nation engaged in efforts to strengthen the standards designed to verify the quality of preservice preparation training received by aspiring administrative certificate and license holders. A new journal directed primarily toward examining issues associated with administrator preparation (*The Journal of School Leadership*) has been launched, and a Special Interest Group for the American Educational Research Association has been formed to explore issues associated with research on teaching in the field of educational administration.

In the dialogue resulting from this interest in the ways in which people are made ready to become educational leaders, certain themes have emerged. At least ten specific recommended practices have been frequently suggested as ways of making educational leadership preparation programs more effective:

1. Attention ought to be directed toward finding ways to increase the amount of clinical learning available to participants in preparation programs (Milstein, Bobroff, & Restine, 1991);

2. Experienced administrators should be recruited and trained to serve as mentors to aspiring leaders (Daresh & Playko, 1989);

3. Students of administration should proceed toward their goals in cohorts;

4. Reflective skills are needed on the part of aspiring (and practicing) school administrators (Hart, 1991);

5. Preparation programs should be directed toward assisting individuals appreciate the need for moral and ethical leadership behavior (Barnett, 1992);

6. Aspiring leaders need to learn how to work effectively with adult learners, and principles of adult learning must guide practice in preparation programs (Achilles, 1987);

7. The curriculum of programs should be designed to be coherent, integrative, and sequenced in a logical fashion (Achilles, 1987);

8. Greater emphasis should be placed on assisting aspiring educational leaders in learning about teaching and learning processes in their schools;

9. Authentic assessment techniques, including portfolio review, should be utilized as a way to track student progress and development in preparation programs;

10. Preservice preparation should be viewed as only one part of comprehensive professional development. Induction and ongoing inservice education should also be viewed as part of effective professional growth.

The adoption of these and other recommended reform practices are said to increase the likelihood that new school administrators will be better prepared to face the complexities and demands placed on future leaders of ever-changing and increasingly diverse communities. Further, it is suggested that administrators will need to think in terms of life-long development of their careers. As a result, professional development no longer ends when a person completes a degree or certification program, obtains a state certificate or license as an administrator, or takes a first administrative job.

In addition to the strategies noted above, one of the suggested approaches often listed as a way to improve the professional development of school leaders is based on the perception that the field of educational leadership might be improved greatly if we were to adopt some of the practices used in other professional fields as a way to provide initial training and ongoing inservice education to support people who work in those fields. Thus, we have seen references over the past ten years or more, of the likelihood that administrator preparation would be significantly improved using the "medical model." It may be true that borrowing certain aspects of what is done to develop good physicians may have some positive effect on the ways in which we prepare educational administrators. However, the purpose of this paper is to look more carefully at the broad assumption that effective principals and superintendents will be prepared if we modify our professional development programs to model the best practices of medical education. In addition, we examine the assumptions made regarding the adoption of practices from other professional fields, namely law and the ways in which people are made ready to step into the Catholic priesthood. In this paper we explore three models of professional development traditionally followed in medicine, law, and the Catholic priesthood to assess the extent to which these approaches are likely to add to the improvement of the ways in which individuals are likely to be made ready for the "culture shock" that they will experience when they step into the new world of a practicing school administrator.

Background of the Study

This review has been based on an examination of research and literature in four areas. The first of these is research on the needs of beginning principals. The second is on the nature of ongoing professional development for educational administrators. Third, data used in this analysis comes from

an examination of literature descriptive of practices and problems associated with the preparation of inservice support available to physicians, attorneys, and priests. The final area reviewed included sociological analyses of professional occupations.

Research on Beginning Principals

Research on beginning administrators has been carried out in the United States, the United Kingdom, Holland, Australia, Singapore, South Africa and several other countries around the world. While there is some difference found in the research due to the diversity of cultures and educational practices and traditions in all of these settings, the overall findings of this research have been remarkably similar around the world.

Some of the most recent investigations completed have been small-scale studies conducted by Nockels (1981) and Turner (1981), and doctoral research by Marrion (1983), Sussman (1985), and Diederich (1988). A common finding presented in all of these works, and also in a broader study by Duke (1988), has been that administrators' first years on the job are best characterized as filled with anxiety, frustration, and self-doubt.

Another study on a much wider scale is the work of Weindling and Earley (1987) in the United Kingdom. Their project reviewed the characteristics of the first years of secondary school headteachers in England, Scotland, and Wales. Surveys and interviews were carried out to gain information from beginners, their teaching staffs, and their managerial superiors regarding the ways in which the newly appointed heads were frustrated in their new positions. Among the many recommendations that came from this study was that beginners need to receive special attention and support from their local education authorities. Weindling and Earley noted that a major problem for head teachers has been isolation from peers. They also noted that some ways need to be found to reduce the sense of isolation that tends to be felt so strongly by novice administrators.

Basically, findings of studies looking at the critical skills needed by beginners have shown that people new to the principalship (or superintendency, or headship, etc.) experience problems in the areas of technical skills associated with their new roles (*What do I do, now that I am an administrator?*), socialization skills (*What am I supposed to look like and act like, now that I am an administrator?*), and self awareness skills (*Who do I look like, now that I am an administrator?*). While all three of these areas are quite important and must be recognized as critical problems faced by school leaders, particularly at the outset of their careers, the area identified as most important is the area of self awareness (Daresh & Playko, 1993). As a result, the assumption might be made that, particularly in terms of professional development at the preservice and induction levels, effective programs must be directed toward helping people learn technical skills associated with their chosen profession, how to "fit in" (socialization skills), and most importantly, how people will be transformed personally in their new roles. There is a clear implication from research related to the needs of beginning principals that, while there is a strong and persistent need for newcomers to receive training and support related to the technical aspects of their new jobs, other issues must also be addressed with equal vigor. They need to know about such issues as sound financial and budgetary management, effective school-community relations, staff evaluation and supervision, legal issues, and many of the other kinds of issues which have served as the core of most educational administration programs for many years. In addition, people stepping into school administrative assignments need skills associated with effective socialization into their new worlds and professions. Research on problems faced by

novice principals shows that a consistent issue faced by first year administrators is learning how to "fit in" to new environments and social systems (Daresh, 1986). In response to this, administrator preparation programs in most cases have included some form of internship, planned field experience, or other type of practicum as a way to ensure that aspiring principals, assistant principals, superintendents, and others are provided with some form of exposure to the daily "feel" of administrative life. Finally, there is need for preparation programs to deal with the sense that newcomers need to have a structured way to "come to grips" with their new personal identities as principals and the like. They need some ways of learning how it will feel to be viewed as the "boss," or prime decision maker, or the "person in charge," or a whole range of other roles assigned to a leader as a result of changes in self perceptions and the perceptions of others in an organization. This is not a trivial matter. In our analyses of critical skills needed[1] by beginning principals, for example, we found that, according to the views of superintendents who have recently employed inexperienced principals, the single most important feature of effective initial performance is viewed in terms of the individuals' abilities to demonstrate clear awareness of how they personally were adjusting to the role. In other words, "knowing oneself" is viewed as an even more critical responsibility than knowing "how to do" the job, or "fitting in on the job" (Daresh & Playko, 1994).

In reviewing the critical skills needed for successful performance by school principals, namely, the need for technical skills, socialization skills, and above all, self awareness skills, the natural question arises as to whether or not some things can be learned from the ways in which other professionals are prepared to balance these competing preparation demands and expectations. The question that we explore in this paper, then, is how well training for three other professional roles--physicians, attorneys, and priests--deals with effective preparation in the three critical skills areas identified by the research, and what is the likelihood that some application of these other approaches can be made in our search to find better ways to promote the preservice preparation, induction, or ongoing professional development of school administrators.

Research on Administrative Professional Development

The second knowledge base serving as the foundation for the work described in this paper concerns the professional development of educational leaders and administrators. As noted earlier, the reform of educational leadership development programs has assumed a center stage. We now have numerous scholars (Barth, 1990; Murphy, 1991, 1992) devoting considerable time and effort to the analysis of issues associated with more effective approaches to the preservice preparation, induction, and ongoing inservice education of leaders. This literature has suggested that educational leaders will be better served through greater emphases on reflection (Kottkamp & Osterman, 1994), mentoring (Daresh & Playko, 1994), more effective approaches to intern experiences (Milstein, Bobroff, & Restine, 1990), focused and sequential curricula, and the many other approaches to leadership development that we noted earlier and are utilized in efforts to promote alternatives to more established university-based educational administration programs (Murphy, 1992).

In recent years, programs for the professional development of educational leaders have come under great criticism and attack. As an example of the kinds of issues that confront the designers of

[1] Data for this study were collected through the administration of the "Beginning Principals' Critical Skills Inventory" developed by the authors of this paper. Other researchers interested in securing this instrument and receiving permission to use it in their own work should contact the authors at the addresses noted on the cover page.

more effective professional development programs for principals and others, one might consider the observations of Achilles (1987) who noted some severe limitations on how we have normally gone about the business of preparing leaders through university-based programs. He noted that traditional programs are limited because they rely heavily on academic courses which are not, in turn:

1. ... taken in any particularly thoughtful sequence;

2. ... differentiated according to levels of administration (principalship or superintendency), or to varying degree levels (M.A., Specialist, or Ph.D./Ed.D.);

3. ... designed with some type of apparent conceptual framework;

4. ... developed with an underlying reliance on learning theory (or, in fact, any visible overarching theory base). This is particularly true with regard to any acknowledged reliance on adult learning theory;

5. ... closely aligned with desired outcomes, or coordinated with the work that administrators do...or should do;

6. ... typically related to rigorous evaluation, either singly or for their contribution to the development of a vision driving a total administrator preparation program.

In addition to these individual shortcomings of professional development programs for school administrators, we also note another critical limitation. Specifically, preservice programs generally appear to ignore the realities of the unique needs associated with serving as beginning leaders. As noted in the previous section, beginners have difficulties with technical skills, socialization, and self awareness. As a result, effective preservice preparation programs for principals and other leaders must attend to each of these three areas, in a balanced fashion. Further, as we also noted at the opening of this paper, a reasonable trend which has emerged in recent years holds that discussions of professional development for school leaders must be carried out as an integrated process: preservice preparation is only a beginning point, with effective induction and ongoing inservice education taking place throughout a person's career. As a consequence, any vision of more effective professional development must somehow blend the issues of recognized skills acquisition with a vision of lifelong learning and professional growth.

The result of this effort to blend different skills and ongoing commitment resulted in the development of what we have often referred to as a *tridimensional conceptualization* for the professional development of school administrators, a model that includes academic preparation, field-based learning, and personal and professional formation (Daresh & Playko, 1992). Lortie (1975) suggested that there are three sources of professional socialization and preparation: (1) formal education, (2) apprenticeship, and (3) "learning by doing." Our view has been that people must receive preparation and support for their leadership roles through balanced attention to strong academic preparation (Lortie's view of "formal education"); realistic guided practice in the field (the "apprenticeship" and "learning by doing" components of Lortie); and, perhaps most important, attention to the typically ignored issue of the aspiring administrators who will need to cope personally and professionally with the ambiguities associated with the responsibilities of school leadership. The three component elements of the tridimensional conceptualization are shown in Figure 1.

The tridimensional conceptualization is described as a way to address more directly some of the perceived shortcomings of many present efforts to prepare and support educational leaders. Our concern here is with three distinct phases that make up professional development: preservice preparation, induction, and inservice education. Important implications are associated with each phase.

Preservice preparation consists of those learning activities and other processes that take place prior to initial job placement. Recruitment, selection, training (or what we would prefer to describe as "preparation"), licensure, and placement into a first job are all components of the preservice preparation phase.

Induction may be defined as the period in a person's career when he or she is in a new position in an organization, under a new role definition. The process of induction is something that is not necessarily concluded after one year in a new job. Induction may take several years to complete, depending on conditions in the organization, the nature of the role, and the characteristics of the individual.

Inservice education consists of learning opportunities that are provided to individuals while they are actually engaged in a job. These opportunities may be directed specifically at helping a person to perform the duties of a particular job more efficiently or effectively, or they may be directed toward the personal growth and development of the person performing a job, regardless of the expectations of the job.

All of the elements of the tridimensional model may be included in all three phases of ongoing professional development. What differs, of course, may be the relative strengths of academic preparation, field-based learning, and personal and professional formation as a person moves from preservice preparation to induction to inservice education. The diagram shown in Figure 2 is an effort to depict the likely relative balance of the different dimensions in each of the phases

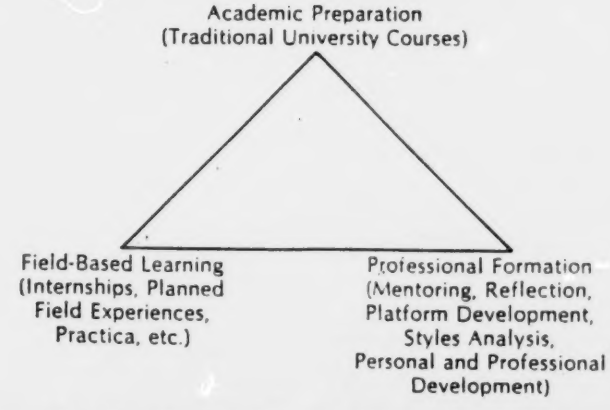

*FIGURE 1. **Diagram representing the tridimensional conceptualization of professional development for school administrators. (Daresh, 1990).***

When people first enter the field of educational administration (preservice preparation), they presumably have little basic information concerning the nature of school management. What is administration? How does one define *plenary power?* What are the constitutional bases for the systems of public education that are found in the fifty states? These are examples of the kinds of issues that are fundamental to any appreciation of the concept of educational management in the United States. They are best learned through fairly straightforward strategies in classrooms, or through reading, or through other methods traditionally associated with academic preparation. As Figure 2 suggests, the majority of one's learning in the earliest phases of preservice preparation might involve heavy emphasis, if not exclusive reliance, on academic preparation.

As people progress through the phases of their careers, learning occurs more frequently from an experiential base. As one learns a field more completely through academic preparation, experience in the field will have more relevance. For example, after one has a fundamental idea of what "formative evaluation of teachers" might be, witnessing a clinical supervision conference will make more sense than it would by simply reading a book. While academic preparation decreases throughout a career and field-based learning increases, there is never a point where either of these dimensions disappears entirely. Even the newest beginner to preservice preparation can learn experientially, and the most experienced practitioners still should read books or attend lectures to learn about developments in their field.

All of the elements of the tridimensional model may be included in all three phases of ongoing professional development. What differs, of course, may be the relative strengths of academic preparation, field-based learning, and personal and professional formation as a person moves from preservice preparation to induction to inservice education. The diagram shown in Figure 2 is an effort to depict the likely relative balance of the different dimensions in each of the phases

The dimension that tends to remain constant throughout all phases of a person's career is personal and professional formation, a process that we define broadly as the continuing effort of a person to grow into and become the kind of person needed to be effective in a chosen professional role. The need to engage in reflection, to think about one's personal ethical stances, and one's commitment to a profession, is constant. A beginning administrator's lack of understanding of what it means to be "the boss" will not be relevant for a ten-year veteran of the principal's office (in most cases). But moral dilemmas that require one to examine personal value systems can be found at all points in a person's professional life. This issue of encouraging greater reliance on continuing forms of reflection on the practice of being a school administrator has increasingly been moved from the domain of the

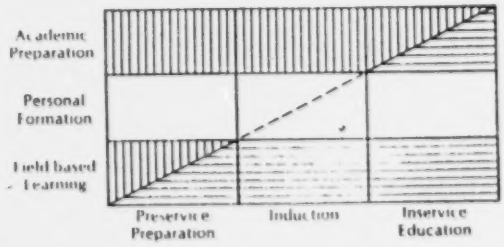

Figure 2. Diagram showing the elements of the tridimensional model and three major phases of professional development (Daresh, 1990)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

"theoretically interesting" discussions of Schon (1983, 1986) to a recognition that incorporating reflective behavior into the world of the educational leader has defined benefits in terms of assisting people in making a shift from "novice" to "expert" performance (Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995). The importance of this observation is that, by looking at the issue of developing greater reflective ability on the part of new school leaders, we may begin to focus attention away from traditional "survival readiness" models of training which imply that effective preservice programs are those which provide people with the knowledge and skills needed to ensure that they "won't get into trouble" when they land their first principalships. Instead, directing preparation programs in the direction of developing thinking and reflective skills as the core of formation for future administrators elevates the focus of programs to one which endorses leadership, not mere survivorship.

Our vision of effective professional development, then, is guided by the extent to which any approach to preparing people for their field of endeavor has gone beyond traditional "skills only" models, but has assisted people with finding, in some systematic fashion, strategies to acquire needed technical, socialization, and self awareness skills. This learning process, in order to be effective, must make use of sound principles which emphasize adult learning principles and understanding of real world issues and problems. Our review continues with an examination of at least three other professional preparation models which might be consulted for these characteristics and applied to the preparation of educational administrators.

Literature Describing Preparation Programs for Other Professions

The third source of data used analyses of the ways in which individuals are prepared to assume three other professional roles: physicians, attorneys, and Catholic priests. However, here we simply note the major stages followed in the most conventional and traditional approaches to preservice preparation currently in place across the United States. We must note here that there are variations to each of the basic frameworks presented here. All professions are undergoing constant reviews of the "best" ways to go about the business of preparing new generations of practitioners. And, variations from the general models described here may easily be almost as numerous as there are different institutions involved with the preparation of doctors, lawyers, and priests.[2] Still, our reviews of numerous programs suggest that, for the most part, more similarities than dissimilarities are found in different approaches now found across the nation.

Medical Education. Individuals pursuing careers as physicians typically proceed through three distinct phases of preservice preparation: Undergraduate studies, medical school, and residency. Undergraduate studies, often referred to as the "pre med" period, consist of the pursuit of a baccalaureate degree which features focused studies in physical and natural science. As a result, the "major" achieved by a student in this phase might be identified in terms consistent with traditional

[2] As examples of differences in medical education, for example, we note that the School of Medicine at Harvard University now strives to blend a significantly larger amount of clinical practice into all four years of study, rather than using the traditional model described here, where the first two years are devoted to "pre-clinical studies" and the second two years are committed to clinical learning. At The Ohio State University, experiments have been carried out to provide "pre-clinical" or scientific coursework through computer-assisted self-directed learning strategies so that students might progress through their non-clinical coursework at their own rates. Similar variations on "The Model" we describe in this paper will doubtless continue to appear.

fields such as biology, chemistry, and so forth, or it might be classified as simply a "pre-medicine" undergraduate emphasis. Marion (1991, p. 4) provides further description of this earliest stage of preservice preparation for future physicians:

> For most people who seek a career in medicine, the path taken from start to finish is fairly straightforward and simple. The process usually goes something like this: during the senior year of college, after meeting with a professional school adviser, the student completes and mails applications to a carefully selected group of medical schools across the country; after reviewing the applications, the admissions committees at some of those schools schedule interviews with the student; then, during the course of the 45 minute meeting, the interviewer, usually a middle-level faculty member at the school, decides whether, in his or her opinion, the applicant, after seven or eight years of training, will have what is needed to be a good physician. If the interviewer's decision is positive, the student will receive an acceptance letter in the mail a few weeks after the interview--and will spend much of the remainder year of college floating on air.

Upon receipt of the undergraduate degree and successful completion of the Medical College Aptitude Test (MCAT), and proceeding through the kind of review process described above by Marion, aspiring physicians are admitted to intense professional preservice preparation in approved medical schools across the nation. The normal sequence of studies at this level of preparation is usually a four-year time period, with the first two years being devoted almost exclusively to advanced study of the natural sciences associated with the field of medicine (microbiology, biochemistry, anatomy, and so forth). (See Appendix I). Traditionally, these studies are completed on campus, in the facilities of medical schools, with instruction often provided by non-physicians, or physicians who have selected academic careers over private practice. There is some clinical practice associated with the first two years, to be sure, with many medical schools attempting to infuse even more contact with patients earlier in the curriculum. Nevertheless, the first two years of medical school tend to appear to many students as a continuation of the science-laden, lecture hall-delivered material that they had seen during their undergraduate days:

> Physiology, histology, biochemistry, neurobiology. The first semester is under way. I am beginning to know some of my classmates, I know the locker combination to get out my microscope... I must say, I feel a bit like I am back in high school. There are no decisions to make; I simply march through the day in step with the other people in my class; we go from lecture to lab to lunch to lecture together. This can be monotonous, but I also find it reassuring; I will sit here passively and they will turn me into a doctor. This metamorphosis is a miracle which will be worked upon my acquiescent body and mind. (Klass, 1987, p. 30)

As the first two years of medical school conclude, greater emphasis is normally placed on students moving toward greater opportunities for field-based, or clinical learning. During this phase, the majority of learning occurs through supervised "clinical rotations" carried out under the guidance of practicing physicians who are formally affiliated with the faculty of the medical college. Rotations take place primarily in "teaching" hospitals, but some specialized training occurs in other medical settings. The idea behind this phase of the preservice preparation is to enable aspiring physicians to gain insights into the practical realities of a wide range of medical subspecialties. As a result, rotations might include time spent in emergency rooms, pediatric wards, family practice units,

psychiatric departments, and so forth. The last two years of medical school are typically viewed as the transitional era where the future doctor moves from the world of theory learned in university lecture halls to the world of practice. Normally, this is the first time in a physician's preparation program when he or she has direct contact with living, breathing, human beings. (During the first phase of medical school, gross anatomy lab provides students with contact with not-so-living, and not-so-breathing human cadavers).

The second two years of medical school are vastly different from the "pre-clinical" time. Suddenly, the future physician is thrown into the real world of medical practice, at hospitals for the most part, subject to following the demanding scheduling practices (24 hours on duty, followed by 12 hours off) which have been the subject of so many recent TV shows such as *E.R.*, *Chicago Hope*, or the late, great *St. Elsewhere*. The medical student works along with residents--real doctors--learning how to do "real doctor things"--touching patients, starting I/V lines, suturing, reading x-rays, administering drugs (but not prescribing them, of course), and "...working every day and every other night, living, drinking, and breathing..." (Konner, 1987) the life of a doctor.[3]

After concluding the four years in medical school, students graduate and receive the M.D. degree, and more importantly, the right to be called "Doctor." They carry a new designation, both professionally and legally, and they subscribe to the moral and ethical standards outlined in the tenets of the Hippocratic Oath. What now follows is the period of time when theory (and a limited amount of practice) is suddenly blended together with the reality of full-time service as a physician. During this period of residency (usually a four-year period, with certain exceptions such as the six year surgical residency noted), the new doctor is no longer sampling a little bit about a lot (as with the limited time devoted to each clinical rotation in medical school), but now becomes invested in learning as much as it is possible in a fairly well-defined area of specialization (emergency care, general surgery, physiatry, and so forth). They have the right (and responsibility) to provide the type of medical intervention needed to serve patients. They can prescribe drugs, deliver babies, perform surgery, order diagnostic tests, and do whatever is needed to deal effectively with patients who enter their worlds. The only thing that they are not totally prepared to do immediately upon entrance into the residency (the first year of which is normally referred to as the internship) is to perform all of the above activities with the same degree of expertise that they will need to do in the future, when they are no longer under some other physician's supervision. And that is what the residency is designed to do. Through a total immersion process, the relatively inexperienced physician becomes a veteran practitioner. Each subsequent year of the residency becomes another year closer to "experienced" status.[4] Second year residents teach techniques of practice that they learned twelve months' earlier to first year interns. The familiar phrase describing medical education--"watch one, do one, teach one"--becomes a daily part of becoming a doctor. Residency concludes, as noted earlier, in most cases after

---

[3] Randall Braddom, M.D., a friend and colleague who serves as the chairperson of the academic Department of Physical Medicine at the Indiana University School of Medicine at Indianapolis, recently described this period of the clinical learning as the subtle shifting of medical students from the days when they view themselves primarily as medical consumers to medical providers. In Dr. Braddom's view, first and second year medical students tend to identify more with patients above all other concerns. As the clinical experience proceeds, however, they are increasingly able to realize that they have now become providers of care--that their patients are still the focus of their work, of course, but now *the patients are the consumers* of what the future doctors can do to treat them.

[4] Lortie (1975, p. 59) refers to this process as "mediated entry," where the "neophyte takes small steps from simple to more demanding tasks and from small to greater responsibility under the supervision of persons who have attained recognized position within the occupation."

four years for most physicians. Exceptions often occur with decisions to seek additional licensure in more areas of specialization. National Board Examinations follow. Entrance into private practice, acceptance of posts in hospitals as attending physicians, or other choices follow. Medical education, at least in the preservice phase (and in fact, simultaneous induction), has concluded, and new doctors are part of the medical community. Whether or not this overall experience has been "good" or not is clearly open to considerable discussion. We conclude this brief overview of medical education with the following observation by Marion (1991, pp. 267-268) at the conclusion of his personal reflection on how he became a doctor:

> Medical education in the United States today takes people who enter the system filled with humanism and idealism and ultimately forces them to surrender these ideals by the very process that turns them into technically competent and intellectually capable physicians. Even the medical educators who support the system, those who believe that interns and residents, in order to become good physicians, must work a hundred or more hours a week with shifts lasting 36 hours at a stretch, acknowledge that this schedule may temporarily obliterate the good qualities medical students bring with them. But they also argue that physicians' desire to help their fellow man quickly returns once the training process is completed. This argument may be true in many cases, but it certainly isn't true in every case...
>
> None of this makes sense. Humanism and idealism are qualities we should demand in our physicians, qualities we should be building on, not destroying as a consequence of the training process. Producing physicians who see their primary job as serving mankind is possible, but accomplishing this goal will take major changes in the current system of medical education.

No doubt, many other observers of the current scene in medical education might take exception to this view by Marion. But, from our perspective, there are enough concerns expressed by enough people involved with medicine to suggest that simple adoption of medical education as an ideal approach to the preparation of other professionals--whether related to the acquisition of technical, socialization, or self awareness skills--needs further review.

Legal Education. Most lawyers in the United States are prepared in a manner consistent with the mandated curriculum of the Supreme Court of each state, and the American Association of Law Schools (AALS). After receiving a baccalaureate degree at an accredited undergraduate institution[5], aspiring lawyers are expected to perform well on the Law School Admissions Test (LSAT), apply to and be accepted by a law school accredited by the American Bar Association (ABA).

Law school is a three-year commitment of full-time study. By and large, the first year is devoted to studies which follow a highly prescribed curriculum. Second and third year law students enjoy some greater opportunities for selecting among elective courses. (See Appendix II).

---

[5] As was true of the requirements for entry into medical school, no specific undergraduate major is required of future lawyers. However, most undergraduate institutions provide strong suggestions as to the curricula which might be followed by those interested in succeeding in their efforts to enter law schools after graduation.

While the programs of studies at American law schools have been fairly predictable and similar across institutions over the years, there has been ongoing discussion within the profession to determine not the names of individual requirements for law courses, but instead, the broad outcomes that ought to be achieved by all aspiring lawyers through intensive study. The American Bar Association convened a Task Force on Law Schools and the Profession in 1992 which noted that the following "Fundamental Lawyering Skills and Professional Values" are the legitimate foci for all law school students:

Fundamental Lawyering Skills

1. Problem Solving
2. Legal Analysis and Reasoning
3. Legal Research
4. Factual Investigation
5. Communication
6. Counseling
7. Negotiation
8. Litigation and Alternative Dispute-Resolution Procedures
9. Organization and Management of Legal Work
10. Recognizing and Resolving Ethical Dilemmas

Fundamental Values of the Profession

1. Provision of Competent Representation
2. Striving to Promote Justice, Fairness, and Morality
3. Striving to Improve the Profession
4. Professional Self-Development

While these basic themes are said to guide the ways in which education is carried out in the three years of law schools, the fact is that, for the most part, aspiring lawyers proceed through a predictable list of required courses which are part of the menu across most the United States:

> At the great majority of American law schools, students begin with a set of required courses that bear the titles of... Procedure, Contracts, Criminal Law, Property, Torts, and Constitutional Law. The six are likely to be taught in ways that resemble each other on the surface. Each will have a "casebook" slightly heavier than a Chicago phone book. Each casebook will devote more pages to the decisions of courts of appeals than any other form of material, and assignments will come almost entirely from the casebook. In class, professors will have an arched eyebrow for every confident assertion a student makes. They will lecture in varying degrees, but nearly all will call on students who have not volunteered, asking questions about the assigned cases and the issues they raise. (Chambers, 1990, p. 151).

There is great similarity among the curricula of law schools across the United States, particularly in the first year of study. This is generally viewed as one of the great strengths of the academic preparation in this field of study because this factor assures, to some extent at least, that

those who encounter lawyers at some point in the future will be able to make certain assumptions about the fundamental knowledge base which drives an attorney's practice.

> Taking the run of national and regional full-time, university-connected law schools as a unit, a visitor could sit blindfolded in, say, a first year torts class in any one of them with some assurance that he would not be able to tell whether he was at Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Chicago, Stanford, or East Cupcake. The level of the dialogue might be higher or lower, depending on the quality of the students and instructors, but aside from that factor our hypothetical blindfolded visitor could not come within a thousand miles of locating the school. This is far more the strength than the weakness of the first year in American legal education, for here lawyers obtain their common cultural base. (Packer, Ehrlich, & Pepper, 1972, pp. 28-29).

After the first year of law school, students have increased opportunities to select courses which will lead them into greater specialization. Here, decisions are made relative to more study in fields that will lead one eventually to the practice of criminal law, corporate law, and numerous other specializations. With few exceptions such as the taking of Professional Responsibility by most third year law students across the country, the bulk of the second and third years are made up of electives.

These campus-based academic courses are designed largely with the goal of assisting students to learn how to "think like a lawyer." The extensive use of case studies has long been viewed as an effective strategy to promote the kinds of analytical skills which serve as the center of much of what the effective attorney must do on the job. In addition, law schools have actively sought other ways of promoting the acquisition of lawyering skills needed by graduates. As a consequence, many institutions have turned toward the adoption of increased clinical, or field-based learning opportunities. Efforts to assist law students to "learn by doing" are found in a variety of ways. "In some, law schools run their own clinics, with students handling cases (usually for indigent clients) and taking related courses or seminars. In others, students receive credit for their involvement in specialized projects supervised by faculty members, are 'farmed out' for clinical work in local agencies and institutions, or participate in elaborations of practice experience" (Bellow, 1990, p. 292).

For many law students, the only approach to learning lawyering skills and how to apply concepts and principles presented in the university lecture hall comes during summers between the first and second, and between the second and third year of law school. As a way to earn money to pay for the next term's tuition, and also as a way to gain insights into the "real world of law and practice," most law students engage in some form of externship or clerkship.[9] This is carried out in a variety of settings, often dependent upon such determining factors as the student's academic performance during the previous year on campus, and the relative prestige of the law school in which the student is enrolled. The most sought-after opportunities for many are those which not only provide the highest financial rewards, but also the experiences which will likely enhance the law student's overall profile and visibility in the field so that placement after graduation from law school is made easier. Further, students hope to land interim appointments in settings where they can observe excellent and skilled

[9] While some might refer to this as an "apprenticeship," that term has a negative connotation among modern lawyers and law school representatives since it was the way in which the majority of lawyers learned their craft prior to the 20th Century and the advent of law schools became the accepted route to admission to the bar.

examples of practice of the particular kinds of legal specialization that they hope to follow in their own careers.

Among the most desired placements include service as clerks to judges. In addition to the visibility, prestige, and future "professional clout" typically achieved through this type of service, many believe that, by working with the arm of the legal process where neither side of the adversarial system (i.e., plaintiff or defendant) is always supported, a comprehensive and balanced learning experience can take place. Judicial clerkships are highly prized, and efforts to acquire these are extremely competitive among law students.

Another prestigious job placement consists of invited service in a large and prestigious law firm, particularly a "full service" company which provides legal service in a full range of areas, from criminal law to corporate law, to family law, to estate and financial planning, and so forth. These types of placements in *L.A. Law* types of settings are also quite valued because they tend to offer the highest amount of compensation (a significant consideration in view of the continuing motivation expressed by law students to achieve financial reward as a primary goal of their work) while also providing students with significant professional visibility. In some cases, field-based learning experiences carried out during law school in large firms result in offers of full-time employment in the same firms after graduation from law school and admission to the bar. Again, placements in these settings are highly desirable by a large number of students, so competition is fierce among those who would like to be associated with high profile organizations.

Less visible and prestigious than judicial assignments and service in large firms are placements as clerks in places such as very small firms, legal aid bureaus, public defender offices, or any of the many less glamorous settings where lawyers toil. Some argue that such learning experiences are the least desirable of any of the types of settings we have described because they do not pay very much, and because they are not likely to be very helpful to those seeking long-term connections to assist their careers. On the other hand, there are some students who actively seek service in legal clinics and similar environments because they represent the type of service sought in the long-run, or because such general practice experiences often provide people with a very wide range of learning that will help them in the future. Returning for a moment to our earlier review of medical education, this last option for legal education might be analogous to the medical resident who deliberately seeks to work as a house officer at a large inner city hospital because doing so allows one to experience all forms of illness, injury, and patient need in a very short period of time. To be certain, few law students would pass up the chance to work with a Wall Street law firm in order to serve indigent clients in a store front legal clinic. On the other hand, the latter experience is not always reserved only for the least capable of future lawyers.

Contrary to the other models of career preparation examined in this paper, preservice preparation of lawyers has no absolute mandate for student involvement in clinical learning experiences. One's ultimate receipt of the Jurist Doctor (J.D.) degree and successful performance on a state bar exam is not dependent upon the successful completion of an internship or residency. Some individuals become lawyers through the study of law, with no prior practice in the field. Clearly, such cases are rare, particularly in light of the constant increase of law school graduates seeking employment. Individuals who have some form of solid experience on their resumes will likely find jobs before those who might not appear with the same backgrounds.

Finally, law students have a few additional ways to acquire more practical skills associated with their profession. One example is participation in the university's law review. Many law schools publish periodical journals devoted to the presentation and scholarly analysis of legal issues. Students are provided important opportunities to acquire skills in the areas of legal research and writing through editorial service. Another important opportunity to practice legal process is through participation in moot court activities.

Once the law student has successfully completed the prescribed course of study for the law school of choice, he or she receives the Doctor of Law academic degree. In most states, however, she or he may not be called a lawyer, a title reserved for those who have formally been admitted to the bar. Most states require successful completion of an examination developed and administered by the state bar association.[7] The bar examination is a written assessment which is directed toward assessing whether or not candidates are able to interpret case and common law correctly, and demonstrate their ability to make effective use of basic legal principles acquired through instruction at the law school.[8] The bar examination normally includes three sections: (1) a multiple-choice exam of about 200 questions devoted to testing verbal logic, knowledge of legal vocabulary, and the ability to function under pressure (this section tends to be the same in all states); (2) several essay questions designed to ascertain candidates' abilities to write effectively about legal points raised in factual problems; and (3) an ethics exam which tests aspiring lawyers' knowledge of ethical rules, as defined by the *Code of Professional Responsibility* of the American Bar Association and state bar associations (Gerber, 1989).

No formal and universal induction processes exist for attorneys. First year lawyers are permitted and are likely to be involved in litigation which puts them across from opposing lawyers with many years of experience. A lawyer straight out of law school may be called upon to represent clients in a matter of law the day after passing a bar exam. There are, in some ways, informal induction processes available, particularly in cases where beginning lawyers enter law firms as associates. Through a period of learning under the scrutiny of experienced colleagues who are senior partners in a firm, associates are invited to become partners. In other settings, beginning lawyers are given duties which are more consistent with their inexperience. Despite these informal techniques, however, we still note that mediated entry into the profession of law is generally absent, at least when compared with the techniques seen in the field of medical education.

We conclude this brief overview of current practice in legal education with a general observation on the quality of the ways in which lawyers are prepared for their craft. Gerber (1989, pp. 29-30), in a review of reforms needed to advance legal practice in the United States, concluded

> Watching laws or sausage being made is not a pleasant sight. The same can be said for the making of a lawyer... Law study has not exactly generated the thrills of a romance novel. President John Adams found the study of law in the 18th Century "a

---

[7] Five states still permit admission to the bar based on "privilege," namely the receipt of a law degree from a law school within that state.

[8] The value of the bar exam as a way to ensure quality legal practice has numerous critics. For example, in 1986, David Epstein, Dean of the Law School at Emory University, observed, "Give me a room full of educated adults five nights a week for four weeks and I could probably get them through the bar exam. The bar exam is nothing but regurgitation of some very specific information."

> dreary ramble." ...After the first lectures at Harvard, novelist Henry James quit because he could not understand the lecturers or the books. Poet-author-physician Oliver Wendell Holmes likened law to "sawdust without butter." "If you can eat sawdust without butter," he counseled his son, "you will be a success in the law." Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr., reported after his first classes that he could not make sense of one word." ... [Today's] legal education often aggravates a combat mentality, teaches contradictory lessons about legal values, and ignores issues of grass-roots justice institutions, all in the name of "thinking like a lawyer."

If even a small part of Gerber's description of the state of legal education is correct, we might wish to look further in our search for more effective professional preparation models that may be applied to the development of future educational leaders.

Education for Future Priests. At first, it may be surprising to include an overview of preservice preparation of Catholic priests along side of reviews of traditional models in medical and legal education. After all, there is a rather common perception that entrance into the priesthood is anything but a planned occurrence. It is a "calling" (vocation) that a young man follows into the clergy. Further, one might question whether one should consider as a model for techniques that are used in an institution which openly practices gender bias, and promotes ideas and values which are often contrary to views held by a majority of Americans. Women are not permitted to be Catholic priests, and birth control is still viewed as unacceptable by the pope.

Despite these apparent contradictions, however, there may be some important messages to consider as we try to find more effective practices for use in the preparation of school principals. We provide a brief overview of the ways in which most priests are now prepared for their roles, apart from traditional views that becoming a priest is little more than hearing a call from God.

Over the last 20 years, the preparation of Catholic priests has followed an increasingly professional and academic model. In the past, it was not uncommon for decisions about entrance into the priesthood to be made by boys no older than 13 or 14 years of age. Across the United States, it was fairly common to find high schools designated as "preparatory seminaries." After boys graduated from these institutions (which emphasized a strong program of religious indoctrination coupled with classical education rich in the study of language, arts, and literature), they would move directly to "minor seminaries," or undergraduate colleges. Four years later, they would go directly into major seminaries for specialized training in religion and priestly practice, then move immediately to ordination. The average priest concluded his studies at about the age of 25 or 26, and was then assigned to work in a parish, at the service of an experienced pastor and a congregation. For the most part, then, the path to the priesthood was one with little or no exposure to the "outside world."

Over the past two decades, massive changes have occurred within the ways in which men are now prepared to serve as priests.[9] For one thing, the "preparatory seminaries" for high school students have not totally disappeared across the nation, but they are rare. Even undergraduate

---

[9] The reasons for this change are varied, and precise analyses are well beyond the interest of this paper. Among some of the most frequently-suggested causes, however, have been the great decline in the number of men pursuing the priesthood, massive declines in traditional lines of support for Catholic institutions in general, and also a deliberate effort on the part of those responsible for the preparation of priests to develop approaches to preparation more in line with modern society in general.

institutions devoted to the initial preparation of future priests are decreasing in number. In general, we now have a situation where the preparation of Catholic priests has largely become a function of graduate-level educational programs.

If we were to compare the preparation paths of priests to those followed by physicians and attorneys, there would be some similarities. For one thing, now that the preparation of priests is viewed in terms of a post-baccalaureate academic experience to some extent, the most fundamental requirement for admission to the seminary now is an undergraduate degree, again with no specific required major. If students enroll in the seminary without a background in such traditional areas as philosophy and theology, it is now common practice for additional coursework in these areas to be required of seminarians. It is not uncommon to meet a large number of individuals who now come to seminary life with undergraduate degrees (and in many cases, graduate degrees) in "non-priestly" fields as chemistry, literature, education, and in some cases, law or medicine. There is, in fact, a strong emphasis at present on developing seminary classes marked by strong heterogeneous backgrounds. Another marked change in seminaries is the fact that the majority of men choosing this path come with experiences in other fields prior to selecting preparation for the priesthood. At the University of St. Mary of the Lake, the seminary which serves the Archdiocese of Chicago (and numerous other dioceses across the United States), the average age of entering students is now near 32 years of age. This is contrasted with the situation of slightly more than ten years ago when entering seminarians were approximately 22 years of age. With the increased average age comes the fact that a majority of incoming seminarians have had alternative careers.

There is no singular and universally mandated form of testing required of all applicants to the seminary, as there is with law schools (LSAT) or medical schools (MCAT). On the other hand, seminaries do exercise rather extensive screening and admissions processes that go well beyond those that are used to permit students to enroll in many other graduate programs:

> [In this diocese]...we believe that selection of candidates at the beginning of studies may be 90 to 95% of the preparation process. As a result, we invest a lot of time and effort in this process. Each man applying to the seminary is subjected to intensive screening by three different boards--one for academic purposes (to determine intellectual ability), one for formational review (to determine religious conviction), and another administrative board which analyzes applicants according to a wide array of personal and psychological characteristics. The boards review such things as personality profiles, physical ability, psychological health, family history, and so forth. We also look at commitment to the role of the priest and religious commitments in general. And we look for signs that suggest that a person may not be able to cope with the stress and demands that will be placed on him as a result of a desire to follow the life of a Catholic priest.[10]

In purely academic terms, when a man is admitted to the seminary, he is also admitted to a program which will lead to the receipt of a master's degree in theology, religious studies, spirituality, or divinity, depending on the nature of the program offered at a particular institution. Since the

[10] Quote from an interview with the director of formation at one Catholic seminary. This respondent noted that the process described here is quite similar in all dioceses across the United States and may be viewed as a standard of practice followed in most settings where there is no affiliation to a particular religious order (i.e., the Jesuits, Carmelites, Dominicans, etc.)

seminaries are, in fact, universities offering graduate degrees, they are accredited in the same ways in which all institutions of higher education in a state or region might be accredited. They require students to follow identified programs of study, maintain appropriate grades, meet all other academic standards, and so forth. A program of studies at one institution includes the following requirements over a four year period of full-time residential study:

Master of Divinity Requirements (155 quarter hours)

A. Biblical Exegesis and Proclamation

1. Histories (Old Testament/Pentateuch)
2. Johannine Literature
3. Pauline Literature
4. Homiletics
5. Narrative Approaches to Biblical Teaching

Electives:

6. Synoptic Gospels
7. Pauline studies
8. Prophets
9. Wisdom/Psalms
10. Scripture
11. Homiletics

B. Systematic Theology

12. Fundamental Theology
13. Christology
14. Doctrine of God
15. Ecclesiology
16. Theology of Priesthood
17. Christian Anthropology
18. Integrating Seminar

Electives

19. Systematic Theology
20. Ecumenical and Interreligious Dialogue
21. Christology

C. Christian Life

22. Christian Principles
23. Introduction to Spirituality
24. Special Moral I
25. Canon Law I
26. Special Moral II
27. Canon Law II
28. Reconciliation Practicum

Electives

29. Moral
30. Spirituality
31. Christian Life
32. Moral

D. Church History

33. Introduction of Early Christian Life and Thought
34. Medieval Church History
35. Reformation and Catholic Reformation: Church History
36. Modern Church History

Electives

37. American Catholic Church History
38. Church History

E. Worship

39. Worship I: Introduction to Ritual and Music
40. Worship II: Church's Sabbath
41. Sacraments of Initiation
42. Sacraments of Healing and Vocation
43. Introduction to Liturgical Leadership
44. Presiding at the Rites
45. Eucharistic Practicum

Electives

46. Liturgy/Sacraments
47. Vocal Practicum
48. Homiletics Practicum
49. Choir

F. Pastoral Life

50. Theological Reflection
51. Introduction to Pastoral Care and Counseling
52. Theological Reflection II
53. Pastoral Internship
54. Clinical Pastoral Internship
55. Theological Reflection III
56. Parish Skills
57. Pastoral Leadership and Administration

Electives

58. Significant Pastoral Issues
59. Cross-Cultural Ministry

G. Hispanic Ministry

60. Introduction to Spanish I

61. Introduction to Spanish II
63. Introduction to Spanish III
64. Summer Language Intensive
65. Liturgical Ministry with Hispanics I
66. Liturgical Ministry with Hispanics II
67. Preaching in Spanish

In addition to this required curriculum, those who enter the seminary without a background in philosophy and theology are expected to complete a fifth year of "Pre-Theology" studies prior to enrolling in the program of studies outlined above. This may appear to most reviewers as an extremely burdensome academic process and, by comparison with masters degrees offered in most American universities, it is. However, it is important to note that, for one thing, the Masters of Divinity degree is more similar to traditional degrees offered in European universities which, in turn, have generally had much more demanding requirements than the masters of most U.S. institutions. Even more relevant is the fact that the program of studies at the Catholic seminary is deliberately designed to address three concurrent goals for all students. The Synod of Bishops in Rome has developed a policy statement which is to be reflected in all programs designed to prepare priests worldwide. According to this statement:

> ...graduate professional education for the priestly ministry [is expected to] have three principal components: *academic* preparation through humanistic and theoretical studies, *pastoral* training through supervised practical experience, *spiritual* and *personal formation* through community life and worship and personal spiritual guidance. (Synod of Bishops, 1990, p. 6)

At the conclusion of the four year program (and year of Pre-Theology, if necessary), candidates for the Master of Divinity (M.Div.) degree must complete a comprehensive examination based largely on the academic content of their program. Successful completion of the academic portion of the seminarian's program, however, does not ensure that a man may now be called a priest. Ordination to that role is a simultaneous but separate process which is built upon the content of the master's program, but carried out through reliance on factors not directly associated with the degree program. A man may not be ordained without successful academic performance, but that type of achievement does not automatically provide the kind of spiritual and personal formation required of the priesthood.

As noted in this description of expectations for the priestly preparation process, there is a strong component featuring required clinical learning experiences. Some of these experience are completed during the course of the academic year, while other activities involve intensive off-campus placements for longer periods of time. Examples of the former include three weekend placements in parishes during the first year of full-time study. There are three stated goals for these short-term placements with congregations with working relationships with the seminary:

> 1. To appreciate diverse populations and local community issues in settings with which the seminarian may not be familiar through his own individual life experiences. Thus, students who come from inner city backgrounds are deliberately placed in rural or suburban congregations. Hispanic candidates spend time in African American or Asian parishes,

> and so forth. The overarching goal is to enable the candidate to appreciate that "ministry begins in the place where people experience life" (Mundelein Seminary, 1995, p. 50).
>
> 2. To learn how to listen to the needs and hopes of parishioners. Through this listening, the future priest begins to see that issues are religious, so that the study of theology [on campus] is no an abstract exercise, but a response to real issues and concerns.
>
> 3. To meet and learn from both ordained and non-ordained professional ministers as a way to see the vitality of ministry in the Catholic Church, and as a way to reinforce personal commitment to the vocation of the priesthood.

These weekend experiences are meant to be short, low risk entries into the new world of the priesthood. They are not meant to serve as in-depth experiences where seminarians learn technical skills. Rather they are primarily designed to serve as beginning socialization activities. More in-depth clinical learning is built into the preservice program for priests in other ways. For example, depending on the local program of a seminary, the second or third year features an extended period of field-based learning (usually comprising an entire academic quarter or longer) referred to as the "pastoral internship." Here, the aspiring priest is placed into a congregation to work directly with a pastor who has received specialized training to provide adequate direction and supervision for the intern. There are three broad areas designed to serve as the goals of the pastoral internship:

> I. Ministry
>
> (The intern is expected to acquire as much knowledge as possible from the supervisor and other parish ministers related to such matters as effective preaching, leading prayer and liturgical activities, providing counseling and pastoral care, developing educational programs, and so forth. Practice is expected in such issues as how to lead meetings, interact with members of the congregation, planning, implementing, and evaluating projects, and many other activities which are considered part of the effective management of a local congregation. Traditional administrative tasks such as budgeting, staffing, etc., are part of this goal area).
>
> II. Diocesan Priestly Life
>
> (Here, the intern develops an appreciation for the normal expectations for what it means to "be a priest." It is expected that the individual learn strategies for the daily exercise of personal and communal forms of prayer and worship, learn how to live in and participate in rectory life, maintain a healthy life style, interact positively with family and supportive friends, and participate in staff, cluster, deanery, presbyteral, and diocesan meetings).

III. Professional Identity

(In this area, the future priest is expected to develop a Learning Agreement with the supervisor. This Agreement is a structured effort to enable the intern to engage in a regular, directed reflection on what he has learned (a) about himself, and (b) about the nature of the priesthood as a result of the activities he has carried out and experiences he has had during the past week).

The pastoral internship is viewed as a critical part of the preparation of future priests for several reasons. Among these is the fact that this is a time when the theoretical aspects of the role learned on campus are now put into practice in real-world settings. The seminarian has an opportunity (and a professional duty) to try to match ideas with practice. Second, the internship is a way to enable the candidate to test personal understanding and commitment to all aspects of the priesthood. For example, it may be relatively easy to profess lifelong commitment to religious principles and the abstract image of holy life in union with God. However, the internship brings about a further test of reality. Can the aspiring priest live out his principles while also being a part of the world. The intern comes to understand what the real work load of a diocesan priest is like, including some elements of the ministry which may be less than attractive to the individual candidate. Celebrating the liturgy each morning and preaching may be what is most treasured by future priests, but pastoral work also involves finding ways to pay for a new roof for the church building, hiring custodial staff, counseling individuals with substance abuse problems, and numerous other activities which are not always seen as part of the "holy life." Finally, the pastoral internship affords the seminary an opportunity to review the progress of a candidate. It is a way to assess, in a real world setting, the skills, knowledge, and attitudes that a man has prior to ordination. The assigned supervisor is responsible not only for serving as a role model, resource person, and guide to the intern, but he is also charged with the duty of carrying out formative and summative evaluation of the candidate during the pastoral internship. Simply stated, if a candidate is unsuccessful in carrying out assigned tasks and fulfilling the terms of the Learning Agreement during the internship, he will not be invited to return to the seminary for the conclusion of his priestly training at the seminary.

The third area of the preservice preparation of priests is spiritual and personal formation, a process which is wholly ignored in the preservice preparation of physicians or attorneys. While the definition of spiritual formation has a decided religious orientation ("all attempts, means, instructions, and disciplines intended toward deepening of faith and furtherance of spiritual growth" [May, 1982, p. 6],) we suggest that this process may be understood in broader terms that might be more important in the preparation of secular roles. Formation, whether it is defined in spiritual or personal growth terms, is a structured process to lead people through a review of personal values, ethical and moral stances, attitudes, and beliefs which may have a direct impact on one's ability to perform an assigned role in an effective manner. It involves a careful consideration not only of what to do in a new job, or how to fit in while doing that new job. Instead, it involves a personal reflection on how the individual may be changed as a result of participating in a new job or professional role. Westerhoff (1987) described formation as a process that "implies 'shaping' and refers to intentional, relational, experiential activities within the life of a ... community" (p. 581). He differentiates formation from other learning processes such as *education* ("...[the activity of 'reshaping' and refers to critical reflective activities related to these communal experiences," (p. 581) and *instruction* ("...'building' and refers to the means by which knowledge and skills useful to communal life are transmitted, acquired, and understood") (p.581). Warren (1987) extended this notion by observing that formation

"is a central and inevitable process in all of human life" (p. 515) because it represents a way in which individuals are able to test some of their fundamental assumptions concerning beliefs and lifestyles. It is, as Williams described (1961), a time when people are able to "learn how to see" as they acquire an accurate means of understanding what is going on around them in the world:

> One's version of the world one inhabits has a central biological function: it is a form of interaction with one's environment which allows a person to maintain life and to achieve greater control over the environment... We 'see' in certain ways--that is, we interpret sensory information according to certain rules--as a way of living. But these ways--these rules and interpretations--are, as a whole, neither fixed nor constant. We can learn new rules and new interpretations, as a result of which we shall literally see in new ways (p. 18).

Regardless of whether the immediate focus of formation is on spiritual or personal issues, men proceeding through preservice preparation for the priesthood are provided with formation from three sources, each of which is deliberately built into the logic and structure of the preparation program. One is from continuing and regular contact with a priest who serves as the director of religious formation for the seminary. This individual meets regularly with each of the seminarians to consider three broad areas of concern: (1) self-awareness (Is this still a path that is consistent with the seminarian's view of personal strengths, weaknesses, goals, and limitations?); (2) vocational discernment (Does the seminarian still believe that this is the right choice as a career path?); and (3) religious conviction (What is the nature of the seminarian's relationship with God?). The second vehicle for formation is the group of other seminarians. This approach is referred to as the class formation dimension. Each seminarian is expected to meet weekly with others in his class to consider matters of religious formation. Among issues considered are ways of praying and the status of individual "faith journeys." These group meetings normally begin, in the first year, as large group sessions but, as the four years progress, they tend to take place in smaller groups. The final way in which the formation process takes place is the responsibility of the individual seminarian. An overriding principle accepted throughout the preservice program in general is that no one makes a person a priest. In the long run, the individual is responsible for the learning, commitment, understanding, and awareness of what is needed to accomplish the goal of ordination. The most significant issues that need to be addressed at all times as individuals proceed through their formation experiences are summarized by two rather simple questions: Can the candidate do the job? And, does the candidate want to do it? Formation, whether directed by one person, a group, or by the candidate himself is always directed toward trying to find personalized answers to these important questions.

As was true in the reviews of other professional preparation models described earlier, there is no pretense to suggest that the way in which men are prepared for the priesthood is a single "perfect" way to provide preservice learning for all careers. While the academic preparation, formation, and clinical dimensions of preparation programs are reasonably well-designed, they are not without some criticism. For example, the pastoral internship is an extremely valuable learning opportunity, but it depends in large measure on the ability of the supervising pastor to work effectively with the intern. While training is mandated for those who would serve as supervisors, the training by itself does not guarantee effective performance. Further, while the academic preparation dimension of the preservice program is rigorous and demanding, there is no assurance that it is also of high quality. Poor teaching techniques which make use of disinterested faculty lecturing on outdated issues lead to the same potential dissatisfaction on the part of students witnessed in law schools and medical schools. Despite

these reservations, however, we remain convinced that some attention might be directed toward this professional development model in our search for greater effectiveness in the preparation of school leaders.

Sociological Analyses of Professional Occupations

An area of continuing interest for sociologists has been the analysis of occupations and the people who work in them. While there is a huge amount of research which has been conducted in the sociology of occupations over the years, it is possible to identify certain patterns or themes of studies. While the review of careers presented in this paper is not intended to be a detailed or scholarly analysis of occupations in the same tradition as the sociological analyses which are found in the literature, that literature and research base has been helpful in helping us to understand more completely some of the more significant issues we have identified. Among the persistent themes that we have consulted include analyses of the characteristics of professions, the social status and choice of occupations, and career socialization patterns (Nosow & Form, 1962; Krause, 1971).

Characteristics of Professions. As we have tried to appreciate issues associated with the professional preparation and ongoing development practices in a selected number of occupations, one of the issues we needed to confront at the outset was the comparability of the diverse groups: Are doctors, lawyers, priest, and principals all professions? Depending on how that question is answered, different generalizations might be made about the kinds of professional development patterns that might be appropriate.

According to Greenwood (1962), all professions possess: "(1) systematic theory, (2) authority, (3) community sanction, (4) ethical codes, and (5) a culture" (p. 207). In terms of the first characteristic, the theory base of a given occupation is often equated with the extent to which those who work under a given occupational title (i.e., lawyer, priest, etc.) "possess a highly complex body of knowledge gained by a lengthy educational process" (Packer & Ehrlich, 1972, p. 22). Do practitioners of a given field possess and make use of some esoteric body of knowledge not generally possessed by the average citizen? To differing degrees, one could easily make the argument that all four of the occupations reviewed in this paper rely on such unique and esoteric bodies of knowledge and theory. Clearly, the body of knowledge known to physicians is vast and filled with an abundance of technical information related to anatomy, biochemistry, pharmacology, and many other fields not typically studied by laypersons. In a similar way, lawyers make use of legal principles each day, and these principles are not often known by non-lawyers. However, one would probably argue that the depth and breadth of the esoteric knowledge possessed by attorneys is not as great as it is with physicians. Priests also make use of a large body of knowledge concerning the Bible, sacraments, liturgy, and other issues which may be witnessed by a large number of the lay public each week, but not typically understood in the same ways understood by the priests who have received in-depth training. School principals may also be classified as professionals, but the argument may be advanced that, of the four groups reviewed here, the esoteric knowledge of their field is the least distant from common understanding. And the extent to which individual practitioners perform according to the precepts of that knowledge base often differs from principal to principal. Some school administrators make extensive use of theory and research in making decisions related to the management of their schools, evaluation of teachers, promotion of instructional improvement, and other elements of their jobs. On the other hand, there are also many principals who survive for many years by simply

reacting to the need to make decisions in response to issues brought to them. In short, they do not make use of the knowledge base that exists around them.

The second characteristic of a profession is that it enjoys a type of readily visible authority, an authority which is derived largely by the fact that practitioners make use of the esoteric knowledge base which also dictates the nature of the occupation as a profession. Again, people give physicians and attorneys a type of respect (or at least recognition) because these practitioners demonstrate that they are masters of their knowledge base, and that gives them a type of public visibility as authorities in their fields. Few people can do what doctors do, largely because doctors have had a lot of training in their jobs. The matter of whether priests enjoy this type of authority derived from expertise is clouded by the fact that, as holy men, priests are also afforded a form of authority and respect which is derived solely from cultural traditions. Do people listen to priests because they believe the priests really know what they are doing, or simply because they are "close to God?" Of the four occupations, school principals enjoy some degree of respect from the lay public, but the issue of whether that respect is derived from public perceptions of expertise may again be clouded by cultural traditions of deferring to the judgments (and position power) of individuals simply because they are "The Principal."

Sanction of the community is also a characteristic which is found in all occupations selected for review, but clearly, this issue is strongest in the worlds of lawyers and doctors who must seek licensure and review solely from peers and colleagues. Unlike school principals who typically receive approval to practice from state bureaucrats (who often have had no experience as school administrators), or priests who have traditionally been endorsed to do their work by divine approbation, physicians and attorneys are given approval to work because other lawyers or physicians say they are qualified. And, only members of the professional group may terminate a practitioner's permission to carry out the role. Lawyers are solely responsible for disbarring incompetent colleagues. By contrast, school boards (composed of non-professional educators) are responsible for terminating employment of principals, and boards of lay review make decisions about revoking educational certificates. For the most part, priestly endorsement comes from centralized sources. The bishop determines who will be ordained as a priest, and also if a person is to lose his legal or formal title of "priest." It is also said that only God can dispense a person's ultimate responsibility of functional designation as a priest. Theological discussions aside, however, the fact is that, after ordination, priests themselves do not control membership in their professional community.

Priests, physicians, and attorneys all commit themselves to adherence to a defined code of ethical behavior as part of their formal initiation to the profession. Educational administrators do not, although they are often well-versed on the legal standards which cannot be ignored. However, doing or not doing certain things on the job simply out of fear that it might be "illegal" or "get me sued" is by no means the same thing as voluntarily agreeing to conform to the ethical canons of the ABA *Code of Professional Responsibility*. School administrators fear losing their jobs by violating certain laws; physicians and attorneys fear losing their careers by violating standards of performance.

Finally, the professional culture must be identifiable if a true profession exists. Again, it is relatively clear that doctors, lawyers, and priests enjoy a clearly stated culture among themselves. Priests act like priests when working together or when working with non-priests. Doctors are readily identified as doctors. School administrators are rarely identified as having a common culture as

professional managers, they are often identified as members of the culture of teachers or professional educators.

We conclude this section with one further comment. In the review of the characteristics of "professions," it appeared that, of the four fields of practice we have reviewed, the least professional at present is the world of the school administrator. If we assume that a legitimate goal of reformers and others interested in the improvement of education may be attained if leaders were engaged in more professional forms of behavior, the question might also asked, "Can school principals ever conform to the expectations of professional status?" It is our belief that, in many cases, principals could be classified as professionals, but they are not because they choose not to behave in ways consistent with that designation. For example, there is a strong movement currently underway, with considerable support from the National Policy Board for Educational Administration,[11] to support national licensure for principals and superintendents, with the expectation that boards of review who would be responsible for granting licenses would be composed of practitioners. Reaction to this proposal has received generally negative reaction from rank and file administrators (and aspiring administrators) who seem more comfortable with the relatively simple process of certification by state bureaucrats now in place in most states (except Colorado where principals must now seek licensure from a Professional Standards Board comprised almost exclusively of principals and superintendents). (Stevenson, 1995). Individual practicing administrators also have personal choices to make in their behavior. They might make decisions based on the knowledge base which has been developed for many years concerning effective educational practice (and therefore behave in a more professional way), or they may adopt a practice now often seen of reactive management, i.e., dealing with each question or problem as if it were new and amazing and without any research base. Of course, it must be recognized that, contrary to the occupations reviewed here, school administrators are subject to lay review (school boards) in ways that are different from review used to decide practice by physicians, attorneys, and priests. However, we believe that individual and group practice of school leaders might be examined constantly to find ways where greater professionalism might be promoted. Simply stated, it is too convenient to say that school administration cannot become better only because school boards prevent them from doing what should be done.

Social Status and Occupational Choice. Another persistent line of inquiry among sociologists who have devoted their research to the analysis of careers, jobs, occupations, and professions involves the examination of social backgrounds, and also the reasons why people choose to pursue certain careers. Pavalko (1988, p. 146) notes the following with regard to these issues as an important part of developing a more complete understanding of occupational sociology:

> In professional and semiprofessional occupations a variety of factors have emerged as typical features of careers and as sources of career problems. These factors include

---

[11] The National Policy Board is a voluntary confederation of virtually all professional associations to which school leaders across the United States traditionally belong. Included are the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the American Association of School Administrators, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the Council of Chief State School Officers, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the Association of School Business Officials, the National School Boards Association, and the National Council of Professors of EducationalAdministration and the University Council for Educational Administration. The Policy Board is headquartered at George Mason University in Virgina. Recommendations from the Board represent consensus views on matters of national policy which are endorsed by member organizations. However, there is no force of law or national mandate coming from any pronouncement of the Board.

> informal recognition from colleagues, the internal stratification system of the occupation, and organization pressures... In some cases the prestige of the organization in which the occupation is located is a crucial career concern. In others (teaching and nursing, for example) factors that lead to remaining in the occupation or leaving it have been the focus of research attention.

Determining the kinds of things that motivate people to follow alternative career paths becomes important in analyses of the kinds of professional development experiences which might enhance the work of priests, physicians, principals, and attorneys for some very simple but important reasons. Above all, if we propose changes to be made in preparation programs, it may mean that those interested in pursuing a particular career path will be expected to participate in different preparation activities. If we return to a basic assumption noted earlier in this paper, namely that principal preparation programs will be improved if we follow the "medical model," the issue becomes one of determining the extent to which the analogy between career choice in school administration and medicine might be similar enough to sustain the comparisons. Those entering the world of medicine know that, despite the fact that they normally have large debts to repay early in their careers, they will typically be able to achieve a relatively high income, regardless of specialization, during the course of their careers. Further, they are pursuing paths into what some call "early ceiling careers," (Thompson, Avery, & Carlson, 1962) where it will be possible for people to move rapidly "to a position which represents the achievement of what the occupation defines as full-fledged membership in the group" (Pavalko, 1988, p. 146). Lawyers and priests also engage in similar "low ceiling" careers. Immediately after ordination and after the bar exam, as we noted earlier, priests are priests and lawyers are lawyers. Perhaps not with the same prestige and the same high profile as some of their senior colleagues, but they are still approved to carry titles of office that mark their status in the community. Motivations for these two occupations are, of course, very different from one another. Few men choose the priesthood as a way to achieve great financial wealth. Instead, service to others through service to God is the kind of factor that drives most people to their choice of profession. While the standard view of lawyers is that, like physicians, they are driven mostly through interest in achieving wealth and prestige, this would be a most unfortunate overgeneralization of why people go into law or medicine. A large number of people pursue medicine and law out of deep personal convictions that they wish to serve others.[12]

As one considers issues of career choice and social status from the sociological perspective, it is increasingly apparent how an appreciation of what takes place in other fields may inform our dialogue concerning the preservice preparation of school principals. It is hard to imagine that people look to the principalship as an avenue to financial reward and prestige in the same ways in which people have traditionally looked at the possibility of becoming doctors or lawyers. As a result of the probability that financial reward will not be found "at the end of the training process," expectations for massive changes in life style are not likely to be as feasible in recommended changes in how people are prepared to become school administrators. Simply stated, it is difficult (if not completely impossible) to persuade aspiring school principals to engage in full-time intensive study to attain their credentials and degrees needed to serve as school principals. Most individuals seeking further education as school administrators are currently serving as classroom teachers. They are older than

[12] Lest readers suspect that the authors are completely naive or blind to reality, it is clear that a prime motivator for many who choose careers in law or medicine is still one of security and wealth. And there are those individuals who may follow paths into the priesthood for less than altruistic motives. Still, we look at broad issues and pictures in describing how people move into certain occupational roles.

most individuals first entering law schools or medical schools, and they often have family responsibilities, clearly not a typical concern of men who enter the training for the priesthood. And financial rewards resulting from the achievement of an administrative credential are not likely to be so great as to compensate individuals in a way that would be commensurate with the time lost as a teacher for a year or two. In addition, as base salaries for teachers increase across the United States, the lure into administration based on great financial reward is decreasing substantially. In many metropolitan areas around the country, an individual will likely suffer a financial setback by moving from the classroom to the principal's office, at least insofar as hourly (or daily) rates of pay are concerned.

Another major difference found in the four professions reviewed in this paper deals with the extent to which individuals entering preparatory programs are indeed focused squarely on the achievement of the professional role they are studying. In the areas of law, medicine, and the priesthood, there is little doubt that, when a person commits to the prescribed program leading to the desired roles, there is some absolute commitment to that goal. People rarely "sort of" want to become doctors. On the other hand, there is a huge number of individuals each year who enroll in some of the more than 500 school administration programs available across the United States without any firm desire to become principals or superintendents. Completing a graduate program in educational administration might be simply a convenient way to get an advanced degree so one can qualify for a pay increase. Or, completing the requirements for an administrative certificate might be a kind of future career "insurance policy," just in case, at some unspecified time in the future, a person might want to leave the classroom and perhaps try his or her hand at being a principal. By contrast, men do not go to the seminary, or people do not enroll at law schools as a "back up career option."

Whether these characteristics should be true of how and why people choose to go into educational administration is not an issue to be resolved in this paper. However, observations of this type are rather important when attempting to identify some of the ways in which the real world practices (complete with limitations) that we see in principal and other administrator preparation programs are carried out so that we may improve practice in the future.

Career Socialization Patterns. The final issue considered in the area of occupational sociology research concerns the ways in which different professionals are socialized to their roles. Pavalko (1988, p. 84) defined *socialization* as "the process by which the values, beliefs, norms, roles, assumptions, and practices that make up a culture (or subculture) are learned, and is one of the most basic concepts of sociology." Merton (1957, p. 287) noted that socialization is "the process by which people selectively acquire the values and attitudes, the interests, skills and knowledge...current in the groups to which they are, or seek to become, a member." In even more direct terms, we have noted that socialization is learning how to "fit in" as a member of an occupation group or profession. As noted earlier, this is one of the critical skill areas associated with a new principal's probable success when first stepping into an administrative assignment. Our reviews of the preservice preparation programs available to doctors, lawyers, and priests have looked at the ways in which socialization--either as a conscious goal or not--is carried out in those fields. The goal has been to determine possible implications for the preparation of school leaders.

There is a relatively rich source of information which has been developed over the years concerning the socialization of all three of the professional groups we have examined. Hughes, Thorne, DeBaggis, Gurin, and Williams (1973) reviewed educational programs for medicine, law,

theology, and social welfare and concluded that, in the case of all four fields of endeavor, conscious efforts are built into training to assist in the occupational-socialization process for people enrolled in formal training programs. Of these, the medical education approach to socialization is the most well known, either because it is viewed as most effective, or simply because "the socialization of medical students has received an inordinate amount of attention [in the literature]" (Pavalko, 1988, p. 89).

The socialization of medical students has been studied by numerous researchers over the years. Perhaps the classic study of this phenomenon was the work by Becker, Geer, Hughes, and Strauss (1961). Krause (1971) summarized their work and the analyses of other researchers looking into the socialization of future physicians:

> From their entry as a class in medical school, the students form a "community of fate," which is destined to share essentially the same general goal and a set of critical experiences, risks, and dangers. One early experience in medical school is the impact on the student of the information and knowledge explosion in medicine; as they soon put it, "You can't know it all." In fact, recent revisions of the policy of education at some medical schools stress this officially for students, urging them to develop the skills of question-asking and researching for themselves, rather than attempting to ascertain what the faculty wants as was common at the time the Becker group did their study.

One interesting anecdote supportive of Krause's observation is found in numerous examples of personal reflections produced by individuals who recently completed their medical studies (Hoffmann, 1986; Konner, 1987; Klass, 1994). A fairly typical observation during the clinical rotation phase of study, and also during the residency was that it was common to see more experienced residents making use of notes during their involvement in various medical procedures. Less experienced medical students and residents soon knew that folkloric visions of competent doctors being able to know all things in all situations were false. It was acceptable and even critical to "look at the answers." Doing so was not considered "cheating" or unprofessional and incompetent behavior.

As we noted before, attorneys are considered to be well-socialized to the legal profession mostly through the academic process of learning to "think like a lawyer." Formal clinical experiences are absent from most preparation programs for attorneys largely because there is a prevailing view that the "nuts and bolts" of law practice is a form of scholarship which is best learned in the academic environment of the university. Thus, "the socialization experience in law school itself appears to depend rather strongly on what type of law school the student is attending" (Krause, 1971, p. 152). Whether it is stated as a formal goal of legal education, there is a belief that, through the long hours of reading, searching relevants cases to assist in the analysis of course materials, and extensive use of the law library, aspiring attorneys will indeed get a sense of the "feel" of being a lawyer.

Traditionally, the socialization of Catholic priests has been a process which might be better referred to as "indoctrination." Historically, the unstated *sine qua non* of priestly education was the complete acceptance of the doctrine and beliefs of the Church. If a man believed in these fundamental values and core beliefs, he could rightfully claim a role as a member of the community of priests. Training, of course, was needed to learn some of the technical duties of serving as a priest--how to preach, administer sacraments, speak Latin, celebrate the liturgy (i.e., say mass), and so forth. Now,

as we noted before, considerably more time is devoted to the issue of helping future priests learn to "fit in" with the image of serving as a priest.

We compare these approaches to what takes place in the preparation of future school principals. In this field, there is a strong reliance on the process of anticipatory socialization" as a way to learn what "principals are supposed to look like." Anticipatory socialization is the process of learning a role, norms, and culture by observing these issues as a non-participant prior to stepping into that role in a formal way. Thus, children learn how to be parents, at least to some basic levels, by watching their own parents. Teachers learn what principals do by watching the principals for whom they work (and recall the principals they encountered when they were students). While these forms of learning about the culture of the principalship and administration are helpful, they are by no means as intense a set of learning experiences as those witnessed in other professional fields.

Conclusions and Discussions

If E.T. were to return for another visit to the earth, land in Chicago or New York (or just about any other place), pick up a copy of the *Tribune* or *Times*, and read it for more than a couple of minutes, the space visitor would find an abundance of news stories that describe examples of unacceptable, unprofessional, and immoral practice by doctors ("Anesthesiologist falls asleep while child dies in routine surgery"), priests ("Local pastor accused of fondling altar boys"), and lawyers ("O.J. trial continues...and continues...and continues..."). Our space traveler would find it a bit surprising that, based on what he/she/it saw in the papers, researchers would be standing in front of their peers with a proposal to reform the field of school administration ("Principal suspended for alleged child abuse") by following the examples of educational programs in law, medicine, and the priesthood. If that was our goal--to adopt blindly and completely the assumption that "other professions prepare people better than we do"--we would deserve not only the criticism of characters from outer space, but also from our more local colleagues.

We wish to return now to our basic interest which launched the review presented here. We have been convinced of the need to look very seriously at finding ways to improve the ways in which people are made ready to step into the increasingly complex and always important and demanding field of educational administration. Our particular concern has been sparked by our assessment, based on our own research and also the studies conducted by many other colleagues across the world, that one of the most significant areas ignored in the preparation of future principals and superintendents is the fact that novice administrators have not received much (if any) preparation for being able to deal with the most significant and complex aspect of their new roles, namely understanding how the role expectations impact on individual people. How does one change as a person, based on the new life and expectations of serving as a school principal? Where does one go to reflect on moral and ethical issues? And where can one test value assumptions? How does one gain self-confidence and a personal recognition that selecting a particular career path has been a wise choice? These are no small concerns. In fact, we firmly believe that, without the kinds of issues listed here being answered in the minds of beginning principals, all the skills associated with carrying out the technical demands of the job, or fitting in to the socialization expectations for a new role will be relatively unimportant.

In this section, we return to review each of the three alternative approaches of career preparation to determine how well aspects of each program might be adopted in educational administration. We are not trying to convince E.T. or any other reader that any of these programs is

completely without blemish. On the other hand, we do not wish to suggest that the ways in which doctors, lawyers, and priests are prepared are without considerable merit in many ways.

Doctors

> ***The professional development of physicians is an area with great potential applications to the improvement of ways in which individuals might acquire greater knowledge related to the technical skills associated with the world of school administration. Specifically, the clinical experiences of medical school along with learning which normally takes place during the internship and residency phases are powerful tools for assisting people to learn about technical issues and practices. Socialization is also acquired during the residency and internship. Self awareness skills, although identified as an important concern of medical education, are not typically addressed in any systematic fashion.***

Doctors prepared in the medical schools of the United States are perhaps the best-prepared physicians on the face of the earth. Ever since the Carnegie Foundation sponsored the analysis of medical education, often referred to as the Flexner Report (1910), attention has been directed toward improvement of medical education and the profession of medicine in general. It is no coincidence that American schools of medicine are beseiged by applicants from all over the world each year. Quite simply, American medical education (and practice in general) serves as the worldwide standard of excellence, even with our recognition that health care reform is something deserving attention, that costs for providing high quality medical care continue to skyrocket, and so forth. After all criticisms are considered, there is still an undeniable reality that doctors in this country tend to know what they are supposed to do, at least in a technical skills sense.

This emphasis in teaching primarily technical skills in medical schools is not totally without criticism, particularly from those within the profession. Natelson (1990, p. 65) observed the following:

> The curriculum of our medical schools is fact-oriented or, if you will, thing-oriented. The doctor is taught early on that it is only the facts that are important. In the basic science years in medical schools, the facts are taught mostly from books and lectures, but demonstrations and laboratories are also used to prove that the "fact" is indeed true. From this system grows an emphasis on facts that the student can hold in his hand. Such an orientation reaches its peak in the course on pathology, in which every fact about disease in an organ can be seen, microscopically if not with the naked eye. True, the medical student does have to learn complicated, abstruse facts from time to time, but for the most part, the facts are simple and concrete. I term this the *materialistic* approach to medicine.

Others documenting their own experiences through the process of becoming physicians (Mizrahi, 1986; Konner, 1987; Hafferty, 1991) also allude to the "fact intensive" aspect of the medical model, often noting that such an approach was both a strength and a limitation to their preparation as doctors. Focusing on the "what" side of medicine gave people great confidence to know about disease, pathology, anatomy, medications, and treatments that might be available to use in

different situations. In fact, this emphasis on the "what" side was a characteristic not only in medical school (both in the science phase and clinical phase), but also through the internship and residency. Many writers have documented the constant quizzing and drilling that took place during daily hospital rounds as a prime example of the emphasis on recall, memory, fact retention, and knowledge "about medicine."

Less formalized but still very much a part of the preservice preparation of physicians is the process of socialization, or learning what it is doctors are supposed to do, feel, think like, and be like as a profession. In medical education, this issue is dealt with throughout the four years of medical school, with the greatest attention focused on professional socialization taking place during the third and fourth years in most instances. However, there is an effort to promote ongoing socialization throughout the medical school years:

> The essence and thrust of the socialization process in medical school is to yield the model professional who is idealized as a super individual in terms of autonomy, judgment, skills, commitment and motivation. (Broadhead, 1991, p. 17)

Further socialization to the world of being a doctor takes place with high intensity during the internship and residency phases of the preparation program. Here, participants in the learning process are no longer cast in the role of "future doctors." They are physicians--at least in terms of technical skill and knowledge. The residency is meant to serve as the total immersion not only into the "what" of medicine, but more importantly, the "how" of the profession: How to live and perform effectively on a few hours of sleep; how to act live a doctor when giving a patient bad news; how to go without sleeping or eating for hours, if not days, at a time; how to avoid the temptation to empathize too directly with patients when professional distance is what is needed, and so forth. By the time that an individual has gone through the residency and internship, he or she is indeed fit to be called "Doctor" in many ways. Treatment and diagnostic skills have been fine tuned through repeated opportunities to practice under the supervision of numerous attending physicians. All manners of disease, injury, and illness have been witnessed. The horrors of sleep deprivation and the "on call" room have been experienced. Cold midnight dinners in the cafeteria, shouting matches with friends and spouses, and sadness over the loss of patients (either through death or a recognition that the young physician could do no more) all forge indelible images in the doctor's mind to the extent that, after four years (or more), it is possible to say that a person is part of the professional cadre.

But what about the third dimension of professional development? How does the preparation program currently in place deliberately and thoughtfully begin to address the important question about how new physicians come to appreciate their own changes in self awareness: *Now that I am a doctor, what does this really mean?* Answers to this question are always being thrown at the doctor in training in medical school, during the internship, and in the residency. However, the answers are generally coming from others. Medical school faculty tell students what they believe are the things that doctors ought to be doing, attending physicians (and senior residents) are not timid in sharing their visions of effective practice with interns and residents, and patients have a stake in defining the vision of effective medical practice by their doctors. The one person who is rarely consciously consulted in the preparation program of future doctors is the future doctor. Unlike the preparation for the priesthood, with its constant focus on formation and personal reflection, the medical model is one that stresses action and constant movement to learn facts, treat patients, and thousand other actions each day. Medicine is not a contemplative field of practice, or at least that is the common perception.

Future physicians do go through a process of self awareness and reflection on issues faced in their world of constant action and reaction. There are times when people suddenly appreciate the fact that they do something very different from the things that others do. Reviews of literature show some remarkable similarities in terms of when medical students, interns and residents begin to realize that they are, in fact, doctors--and what that really means. One of these momemts identified by many is the beginning of the required course in Gross Anatomy (Hafferty, 1991) when the medical student faces the prospect of dissecting a cadaver. As Hafferty has noted in his reflection, despite all of the tension associated with the fact that he was about to begin to cut into a human body for the first time, this was the moment when he recognized that he was going to be a person who would be called upon to be in some ways a controller of human life. He would be a person that people would come to in pain, suffering, grief, and agony and do things that other people--non-doctors--could not do. Similar descriptions are found as medical students are called upon to engage in more practices associated with being a doctor--starting an I/V line, suturing a laceration, and so forth. All these were moments that could truly be classified as "rites of passage." Every physician in training experiences these moments, but the preparation program does not recognize in any formal way the importance of these as part of an individual's formation.

We conclude this review of the strengths and weaknesses of medical education as a training and preservice preparation model by noting that, despite some of the reservations we have noted here and earlier in this paper, there are many things that we can adopt from this form of preparation. Technical skill acquisition is extremely well developed in medical education. Indeed, scholars have already begun to suggest that administrator preparation might profit from understanding the ways in which problem-based learning has been incoporated into the training of doctors (Bridges & Hallinger, 1993; Barrows, 1984; Coles, 1985; Bok, 1989; deVolder & deGrave, 1989) Further, the vision of medical clinical experiences serving not only to assist people with technical skills but also to serve as a socializing experience is a most effective approach. Where the application of the "medical model" falls short of the needs of leadership development, we believe, is in the fact that it does little to address the need for individuals to engage in a directed process of reviewing and reflecting on how people change in terms of personal values, understandings, and moral and ethical stances about issues of significance which face the professional. We do not wish to suugest that medical students, interns, and residents do not think about personal formation issues as they proceed through their preparation. But we see little in terms of the programs being deliberately designed to address this issue either. And that is where we believe the application of medical education to school administrator preparation comes up a bit short.

Lawyers

> ***The professional development of lawyers places an emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge about the craft of lawyering, to the extent that technical skills are emphasized as much in law school as they are in medical schools. Socialization takes place quite gradually throughout law school, and in terms of apprentice experiences such as clerkships during summers, externships, and in some cases, campus-based legal clinics. Self awareness takes place, but again it is left to the device of each student who may or may not develop a relationship with an experienced lawyer or judge to serve as a mentor.***

The study of law has generally been viewed through academic lenses, perhaps because there is such a strong desire to make certain that the self-directed apprenticeship model of the 19th Century does not return. In short, law schools prepare lawyers, and these institutions do so through a rigorous, demanding, academic, and campus-based process. Lawyers spend a great deal of time reading, writing, and engaging in legal research. So do law students.

What the legal profession gained through its movement away from apprenticeship training was greater emphasis on scholarship and a sounder footing in academic preparation. This enabled law to move closer to acceptance by other professions such as medicine and practitioners of the natural sciences such as physics, chemistry, and engineering. In the past, lawyers tended to be seen by other "true professionals" as individuals with an unusual "gift of gab," but largely as "unproductive parasites" (Abel, 1989, p. 5). The tendency to undergird legal education with rigorous post-baccalaureate training, strict oversight by such agencies as the American Bar Association, and the granting of a doctoral degree (a doctor of laws) has changed at least the self-perception of lawyers that they are now as well prepared intellectually as others.

What the shift from apprenticeships to the campus gained in academic preparation, however, may have represented an unfortunate loss of opportunity for future lawyers to go through ongoing socialization so that they could not only learn "the law," but also "how to be" a lawyer. Given the fact that law schools across the nation do not require formal clinical or field-based programs as part of their curricula for aspiring lawyers, the process of socialization to the role of lawyer is not at center stage in the preparation of future attorneys.

For the most part, then, socialization of attorneys tends to take place after graduation from law school, after admission to the bar, and after acceptance of a first job. "The majority of graduates, who entered solo or small firm practice, were socialized informally by their contemporaries or elders" (Abel, 1989, p. 11). What happens increasingly in the preparation of American lawyers is that the first job tends to serve as the residency does for physicians. The problem, however, is that lawyers on the job--even on their first jobs, and even in small or relatively obscure law firms or agencies, are still lawyers. They are full-fledged members of their profession, with complete opportunities to practice--or malpractice--at will without close supervision. If the "contemporaries or elders" that serve to socialize the newcomers are competent, moral, effective, and ethical, that process may yield a positive socialization process. If they are not... so grows the tree.

In view of the fact that socialization processes tend to be ignored in law school, in favor of more rigorous academic preparation, it may not be surprising to note that planned efforts to support individual self-awareness and formation is totally absent from structured legal education. This may also be the primary explanation of why so many beginning lawyers express such surprise at the sudden discovery that they often have more to do with dispensing law than they provide clients with justice (Mills, 1975; Simenhoff, 1993). It may also explain why, in a fashion consistent with law school trust in academic avenues to preparation, professional ethics is left to be explored through a required course on the *ABA Code of Professional Responsibility*. A lack of specific focus on individual self awareness and ethical reflection may also contribute to the general perception, heard so often during the last few weeks nationally, that lawyers do not do what is right or wrong; all they want to do is win cases. Finally, this lack of reflection throughout programs mat also be part of the explanation for the difficulty that the profession of law in general seems to have each year in trying to convince attorneys to accept social responsibility by providing *pro bono* legal aid.

Our goal here was certainly not to mount a critical analysis of the legal profession. What we have tried to do has simply been to see what--if any--aspects of how lawyers are prepared might be incorporated in leadership preparation programs. The techniques used in socialization or developing self awareness clearly do not seem to hold any promise. But academic preparation in law is strong. And the traditional instructional technique of law schools--the case study approach--clearly has considerable merit, and may serve as a way to increase the effectiveness of educational administration programs. And, like medicine, we also note that there is a strong emphasis on entrance standards. Law schools make no pretext that they will accept anyone and make them into lawyers. Often, in what many might call a misdirected effort to ensure egalitarianism, colleges of education exercise no similar intense review of candidates who wish to become leaders of schools.

Priests

> ***Catholic priests are prepared for their role through the study of a knowledge base related to their field and thereby learn about the technical skills of the priesthood as they proceed through the seminary and their graduate education programs. Socialization also takes place during the seminary experience. The area typically addressed in great detail as the part of the training provided to most men aspiring to the priesthood is in the area of self-awareness. This is accomplished through a planned process referred to as formation. The primary goal of this process is to enable each aspiring priest to engage in a thoughtful review of personal values, ethical stances, and moral frameworks to be used as a reference base as he goes through the process of becoming a priest.***

As we noted earlier, we concede that some aspects of preparation for the priesthood do not conform to the other models of professional development in medicine, law, and school administration, even though we also noted that, when compared to these other fields, the priesthood may be even more closely aligned to the attributes of professionalism than is educational administration. Still, we appreciate the fact that becoming a priest is a vocation which may be significantly different than the deliberate and free choice that a person might make in entering the field of law or medicine. And the fact is, men who become priests vow to agree to a set of standards, principles, and behavior that they do not presume to change. Doctors and lawyers generally believe that they have greater control over their future professional lives. Nevertheless, our goal here is not to make a comprehensive analysis of any one of the professional models to the extent that we propose the priesthood as a single model which is totally appropriate for the preparation of future school principals. After all, we began this review in large measure to test the validity of some assumptions that the "medical model" holds all the answers. We wish only to determine if some of what is done elsewhere can help improve the preparation for school leadership.

In reviewing the relative strengths of the three dimensions of professional development (i.e., academic preparation, field-based learning, and self awareness and individual formation), the priesthood addresses all three issues. However, when compared with law and medicine, the area of academic preparation in preparation for the priesthood is not as well-developed. The reason for this, quite simply, lies in the fact that "technical skills" and basic knowledge for priestly ministry may be so

wide as to preclude comprehensive treatment through university courses.[13] It is difficult to know, for example, how much information may be needed about philosophy or theology, or scripture study to assess that a candidate is "ready." The nature of technical material needed for a doctor or lawyer to first step into a field is more widely recognized. It may be interesting to ponder if , in fact, this may be another area in which there is greater alignment between school administration and the priesthood or ministry. For example, what is the comprehensive knowledge base that should be mastered by someone who is ready to step into a principalship? One would hope that it is more inclusive of more things than the kinds of things required through the minimum standards established by most state education agency certification offices.

Priests are socialized well for the roles that they will assume after ordination and completion of their seminary training. This has been a major shift from past practice where men were basically isolated from the "real world" as they prepared to become priests at the seminary. The walls of that cloistered and protected environment have quite deliberately been opened. In the past, when young men (usually with no other life experiences because they came directly from high school to undergraduate seminaries to graduate seminaries to ordination) were given their first priestly assignments in parishes, there was a huge culture shock. They had read about and heard about the expectations for life among their congregations would be, but there was no realistic examples to forecast what the daily life of the priesthood would involve. It was not surprising, therefore, to discover in studies such as those by Greeley (1971), Kennedy (1972), and Hemrick (1981) that newly ordained priests expressed significant dissatisfaction soon after they began to work in the "real world" because they often felt ill-prepared to carry out their duties effectively.[14] In response to these sorts of issues, plans of studies for future priests now include such things as the ministerial weekends during the first year of study, and extended on-site commitments as pastoral interns at different points later in the priests' preparation programs. The only other professional role which has this same emphasis on total immersion in a role before completion of studies is that of physician.

In our judgment, the aspect of priestly preparation which truly excels above other models is found in its ongoing emphasis on dealing with personal and professional formation. The assignment of a director of formation to meet frequently with seminarians to lead individuals through ongoing reflection on their new professional identities represents a major departure from medicine and law where the reflections of individual candidates typically happens on the side, often in spite of all the other demands that are placed on students. Who has time to think about why one is doing what one is doing as a doctor in the middle of a 36 hour shift in an emergency room of a busy inner city hospital? Further, in law and medicine, there is an assumption that people who enter these fields of study have already considered such issues as personal commitment, likely lifestyle changes, and so forth. In all probability, medical and law school faculties would discount the need for personal "hand-holding" of students as they proceed through their training. Again, we make no judgment of such a stance in those fields. But we see significant applications and parallels between the world of the priest or minister and the world of the school leader to warrant some acceptance of formation as an important part of

---

[13] This is not to suggest that any of the three professions reviewed assume that preservice training will provide *all answers to every question* encountered during a career. All three professions place great emphasis on required ongoing inservice education to maintain contact with new relevant information.

[14] There are some who suggest that one of the reasons for the mass exodus of men from the priesthood throughout the 1960s and 1970s was caused, at least in part, by the frustration that newly ordained priests felt when they first went out of the seminary and met real social, political, economic, legal and other issues for the first time in their lives.

administrator preparation. Consider, for example, that both fields make significant demands on individuals in terms of daily practices. Future principals come into that role with previous backgrounds and experiences as teachers. Increasingly, future priests are coming to the seminary with other life experiences. Both roles are service roles with a strong emphasis on education and human development as goals. And both priests and principals are expected to be solvers of an ever-changing collection of ill-defined problems which often have immediate and profound impact on human development.

Those who are committed to meaningful change in administrative development might look carefully at what goes on in the formation of priests. Ongoing dialogue between candidates and mentors[15] allows seminarians to consider personal strengths and weaknesses, commitments to their future professional role, and numerous other issues that are a part of a person learning about a complex and demanding new occupation.

In summary, we note that all three professional development roles reviewed in this paper have features which may be considered in terms of their implications for the improvement of the ways in which we prepare individuals to become school leaders. Law and medicine offer strong visions of rigorous and comprehensive treatments of their knowledge bases through campus-based academic programs. Medicine offers us further insights into the ways of blending theory learned on campus with effective practice through the use of field placements for medical students, and also in terms of the post-medical school experiences known as the internship and residency, both of which are carried out in real-world settings of hospitals and clinics. Finally, the preparation for the Catholic priesthood seems to offer important insights into not only the field-based and clinical preparation dimensions of preservice programs, but adds the issue of personal and professional formation as yet another component. While we believe all models offer something, our continuing sense that self awareness of new roles may be the single most critical issue associated with effective preparation of educational administrators, we believe that further attention ought to be directed toward what takes place inside seminaries.

Implications and a Few Final Thoughts

In this paper, we looked at three different models for the preservice preparation of professionals and considered how effective certain aspects of these models might be if one were to attempt to adopt preservice preparation of doctors, lawyers, or priests to school principals. Our review suggests that, while there may be much gained from the application of medical education practices as a way to enhance preservice programs, that single model is limited in its overall ability to address one of the most critical needs of beginning (and perhaps, experienced) school administrators, namely the ability to come to terms with personal values and beliefs in the role. Legal education also offers some similar insights into the improvement of professional development practices. Somewhat surprisingly, the preparation of Catholic priests may have many powerful implications for the improvement of administrator development in ways not traditionally acknowledged by analysts of the

[15] Those familiar with our work in this area will recognize that we have always advocated a concept of mentoring going well beyond the simple notion that experienced administrators show "tricks of the trade" to less-experienced colleagues. We note that such assistance is critical for aspiring and beginning administrators. However, our view of mentoring is that it is an ongoing nurturing process wherein one (or more) people with a sincere interest in a protege serve as a non-judgmental resource and advisor. We also note that mentoring might be an activity carried out by groups of people, not simply one person, an image which is often used in popular descriptions of "mentors."

field. Specifically, the area of self awareness is probably best addressed through the priesthood model. If that area (i.e., self awareness) is indeed problematic for school leaders, perhaps this career development model might be examined more closely for its value in preparing school leaders.

Indeed, there are many issues which need to be explored more completely before we rush to adopt many of the assertions that we make as a result of this preliminary analysis. For example, we assume that descriptions of program outcomes are valid. Seminaries place considerable emphasis on personal, professional and spiritual formation because there is a strong belief that doing so will have both short-term and long-term benefits to individuals long after ordination. But virtually no follow up research has been carried out to verify if practice has been effective. In addition, further work might be done to determine if formation of individual visions and values is truly ignored in the preparation of doctors and lawyers as it appears from our review. Further, we know little about the nature of other phases of professional development (i.e., induction and ongoing inservice education) in any of the three professions. We might assume that there may be elements borrowed from those other fields which could provide us with additional insights into how we prepare and support educational administrators.

Throughout this paper, we have tended to pull apart three different professional development models to determine peculiarities. In closing, we take a somewhat different approach. If we step back from this review of medical, legal, and priestly education, we note some similarities among the models which might have even more value to the improvement of educational administrator preparation than any individual elements. We note four characteristics of the models reviewed: Each is marked by *focus*, *selectivity*, *commitment*, and *intensity*.

Focus.

Each of the professional development models reviewed here is directed toward a clear focus of preparing individuals to step into well-identified roles. People simply do not enroll in law school, go to medical school, or enter the seminary simply as a form of "career exploration." No one goes into any of the professions noted here as a kind of "back up" or insurance in case some other aspects of their current jobs are not satisfying in the future.

Many proceed into principal preparation programs "just in case" there is an opportunity to find an administrative position sometime in the future. Professors of educational administration regularly hear students enrolled in their courses proclaim that they are there because "they really do not want to be principals...but this is a way to get a masters degree." Or, people complete certification programs to get a license or certificate in the event that just the right opportunity for just the right job in just the right place appears at just the right time in the future.

Selectivity

A feature of all three models examined here is that they exercise great selectivity in terms of student selection and retention, clinical sites, and faculty selection. Further, the programs themselves, including the institutions which provide them, are subject to considerable scrutiny and selection.

Student selection. Students are not permitted to enter any of the three preservice programs presented here without a good deal of review by the staffs of each institution. In addition to required standardized examinations such as the MCAT and LSAT, interviews are required in most cases.

Contrary to what many might assume, all programs, including the priesthood preparation programs, subject applicants to a wide array of screening devices to determine entrants' likely success in the professional school in terms of prior knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values. Two core beliefs seem to guide law schools, medical schools, and seminaries as they screen candidates for admission. First, there is a strong sense that the training institutions have a clear notion of what future lawyers, doctors, and priests are going to need to look like if they are going to be successful in the future. Second, the preparation institutions are not likely to invest much time and attention (and other resources) on those who are not likely to be successful. Generally speaking, the sense of student selection and admission in most professional schools is guided by a strong belief that, once a person is admitted, he or she will complete a program of studies and assume their rightful membership in the profession. The institutions, therefore, view themselves as part of the professionalization process. It is a matter of consequence when a person completes a medical school, law school, or seminary and steps out with the *imprimatur* of that preparation institution, ready to serve and receive public recognition as a doctor, lawyer, or priest.

The approach to student selection and recruitment in a large majority of institutions engaged in school administration preparation is quite different from what is described above. To be sure, some universities exercise comprehensive approaches to screen and admit applicants for programs, whether they are designated as masters, doctorate, specialist, or simply certification programs. Graduate Record Examination (GRE) or Millers Analogy Test (MAT) scores are expected to be high, interviews are held with applicants, the number of admitted students is carefully limited to a number which can be adequately advised by the faculty, writing samples and references are required, and past records in university programs are carefully examined. Goal statements of applicants are reviewed to determine fit between candidates and programs. Not surprisingly, these are the kinds of institutions which appear as exemplary efforts and regularly receive recognition nationally, regionally, or even internationally for their programs. (Murphy, 1993)

By contrast, far too many educational administration programs exercise little or no screening of applicants for any programs, particularly at the masters or certification levels. Often, the only apparent quality sought by faculties is that the candidate have a pulse, possess sufficient financial resources, a completed baccalaureate degree, and the ability to complete the paper requirements for entrance (e.g., take time to have someone fill out a reference form, even though no faculty member even bothers to read the forms). This "batch feed" approach to student selection (or in fact, non-selection) appears inspired by the plaque on the Statue of Liberty which invites the "huddled masses" to our shores. Explanations for why this is so range from the self righteous (e.g., "Since we are a public university, we choose not to be elitist by denying access to learning...") to the practical (e.g., "You have to understand that we must keep up our enrollments to make certain that FTE production for the college/department/division does not look bad. After all, we have to keep our jobs.") to downright cynical (e.g., "My job is to teach, their job is to learn what I teach. We will sort out those students who are not able to do the job soon enough"). If it is possible to make a generalization about institutions which treat selection of students into programs, it may be that admissions processes are particularly open at the masters and certification levels, whereas universities often pride themselves with the rigorous review to which applicants for doctoral programs are subjected, the rationale being that, in order to keep programs standards high and enrollment in advanced classes small enough to be high in quality, you need bodies in other classes to pay the bills.. Unfortunately, the vast majority of individuals first stepping into administrative posts in the nation's schools do so after the first degree or certificate is granted, not after receiving the doctorate. Another generalization is the fact that, for the

most part, institutions which exercise the least amount of scrutiny regarding applicants are often those which are essentially undergraduate institutions which have little organizational awareness of graduate program demands. The warning is important and clear for everyone on campus: "Keep up enrollments or your program will be in trouble." That is the same for enrollments in undergraduate history classes, and also masters and doctoral programs in educational administration.

Clinical site selection. Medical students, interns, and residents are not sent out to learn about medical practice in any available hospital, or to look over the shoulder of randomly selected physicians who just happen to be "available" and willing to have doctors-in-training learn a few things from them. Seminarians are not sent out randomly to work with any available local priest in any parish that happens to be handy. And in those cases where law students are directed into externships at local agencies and law firms, care is taken to ensure that future lawyers see good practice.

In cases where field-based programs are required as part of administrator preparation programs, little care is normally taken in the kinds of settings in which aspiring principals observe practice or learn from current practitioners. In cases where this limitation is acknowledged, faculty often dismiss this as an impediment to effective preparation by noting that "Even seeing bad practice helps people to understand practice." The traditional restriction on finding better field placement sites for future school administrators comes from the fact that most individuals in administrator preservice programs are part-time students; by day, they are teachers who cannot get time off from work in order to visit better clinical learning sites. Thus, availability rather than quality serves as the determinant of field-based learning opportunities.

Faculty Selectivity. Individuals who teach in law schools, medical schools, and seminaries tend to be practitioners of the field in which they teach. Therefore, teachers are lawyers, doctors, or priests, for the most part. But they are quite definitely, and by personal choice, members of academic faculties at this point in their lives. As such, they have made a deliberate effort to redirect their careers to teaching, advising, and research.

In many educational administration programs, efforts are made to recruit as faculty individuals who have had line experience in public school administration. This is often no easy task due to the great disparity between academic salaries and what individuals might make in school settings. It is quite difficult to convince an active superintendent who might be currently making a salary in excess of $100,000 per year to give that up to take a faculty position for substantially less than half of that amount. And, while law and medical faculties are able to supplement university salaries by maintaining involvement in private practice, educational administration faculty cannot be school superintendents "on the side." Further, if one were to make a move from school administrator to university professor, the professional demands and evaluation of performance would be so completely different than what was expected as an administrator that the switch would be extremely frustrating. The compromise, then, is frequently achieved by finding retired school administrators to assume teaching positions in many educational administration programs. To a limited degree, this makes a lot of sense. The danger, of course, is when the picture of administration presented to students is one seen through the lenses of those who are now recalling what life "used to be like."

Program Selectivity. Medical schools are subject to periodic and intense review, and they require approval by the American Medical Education. Law schools must past review by the American Bar Association and the American Association of Law Schools. And seminary programs and

practices are scrutinized by the National Conference of Bishops. All agencies responsible for program review and approval are practitioner organizations with an interest in making certain that what goes on in universities reflects the needs of more effective practice in the field.

Reviews of educational administration come from three major sources. State department of education reviews take place periodically and tend to look at the offerings and programs across an entire college of education. The prime reviewers are state level bureaucrats, with a few practitioners invited to provide feedback to the bureaucrats who make the final assessment of program quality. Regional accreditation agencies (e.g., the North Central Association) also carry out periodic reviews of entire colleges of education, with some attention turned toward the educational administration programs. These are hardly professional/practitioner reviews given the fact that accreditation teams are normally composed almost exclusively of university faculty from other institutions. This third criticism might also be leveled at the third source of review, namely periodic campus visitations made by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education institutions (NCATE). In more recent years, this agency has become increasingly assertive and aggressive in terms of its efforts to make "hard decisions" about the viability of programs offered in colleges of education. However, in many ways, this is still a review of the academic standards and practices of member institutions (and membership in NCATE *is* voluntary). Members of the University Council of Educational Administration (UCEA) participate in periodic program reviews, but these reviews tend to look at the issue of academic program integrity. Again, the reviewers are mostly other professors. A voice that may be heard increasingly in the future might be that of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) which has been an advocate for the external review *by practicing professionals* of preparation programs. Needless to say, such an idea has not been widely embraced by the majority of university educational administration programs.

Commitment

At the conclusion of medical school, doctors take the Hippocratic Oath, a pledge of commitment and fidelity to the highest ideals of their profession. While not following a similar public oath of allegiance, lawyers and priests also make public statements of commitment to their professional duties at the conclusion of their preparation programs. Lawyers become defenders of the justice system, the constitution of their states and the United States, and become officers of the court with an ethical duty to preserve proper and competent administration of the law. As part of the ordination process, priests swear fidelity to God, their bishops and pope, to the priesthood in general, and to the congregations they serve. In short, all three professions we have reviewed make a requirement of newly appointed members of the profession to make public and real statements of personal commitment to the ideals of their fields of work.

New school administrators are not required at any point to make a similar declaration of their commitment to the profession. Of course, administrators sign contracts which oblige them to respect and adhere to local policies and procedures. They must follow the legal dictates of their employing school boards and administrative superiors. And they need to heed all laws which define practice. But they make no outward pledge of allegiance to administration, the superintendency, or the principalship. No universal code of ethical conduct or practice is present, and no oath is sworn to such an ideal. A school principal does not have to make a public declaration (except perhaps during an employment interview) that he or she will direct all attention to supporting student learning as a primary professional duty. By and large, school administrators are individuals hired to do jobs

specified by others. This one fact may be a critical and unavoidable part of the differences that fundamentally exist between school administrators and other professions to which they have been compared. Doctors, lawyers, and priests maintain their professional status whether or not they are employed by any organization. (A doctor is a doctor even without a hospital, office, or patients). A school principal is not a professional without the school, students, and teachers to administer.

Intensity

The study of law, medicine, or the priesthood are all extremely intense activities. People pursue preparation in these fields on a full-time basis for the most part.[16] People tend to enter professional schools as a group and remain with the same group throughout the majority of their studies. And the period of time is limited and follows established patterns that are virtually the same nationally. Medical school is almost always a four year program, law schools require three years of full-time study, and preparation for the priesthood involves four years of full-time university study.

Again, there are great differences between these three professions and school administration. Those who pursue graduate programs leading to certification often follow part-time, sporadic programs which include a course or two every term or so, and frequently require five or more years to complete 30 to 40 semester hours of coursework, a small fraction of what is required in the other professions. With the exception of the increasing number of principal programs that attempt to maintain cohorts of students going through programs together[17], the majority of universities allow students to meander through courses as lone consumers. Although there are many historical and traditional reasons for all of these aspects of administrator preparation programs to exist, they make the professional development of principals and other leaders very different than other programs we have reviewed.

So, what is the ultimate answer to how administrator preparation programs can be made better by following other professional models? Clearly, the answer is not to be found in the wholesale adoption of one single professional preparation model as "the way things ought to be." Nor does the answer lie solely in acceptance of what we suggest here, namely pinching a bit here and a practice there from several different approaches in other fields. We have to go back to even more basic considerations before we tinker around with ways to fix current models.

Perhaps the most important and fundamental thing which needs to be done is to begin to think more as if educational administration is, in fact, a profession. And if it is, do we really value school leadership as a way to increase the effectiveness of schools? We use the words, but do we truly mean

---

[16] There are some law school programs which are presented in a format which allows students to pursue studies on a part-time basis. However, even this type of part-time law school does little more than expand a normal three-year course of studies so that it may be followed over a four-year period. It remains an intensive learning experience.

[17] We caution that simply requiring students to take their classes together is not a true cohort learning experience where deliberate and systematic efforts are made to form group cohesiveness and then rely on the expertise of the group as a legitimate and valued form of instruction. We are concerned by the tendency for some programs to adopt "cohort programs" as a public statement of "reform," without sufficient recognition or study of the underlying assumptions of cohorts.

it? If we did, we would probably see many changes taking place rather rapidly. In the meantime, as we work toward that new vision, perhaps the best we can do is to select aspects of the models that others follow, and use the best practices from many. In the final analysis, reform takes a lot of hard work and commitment. There are no simple answers.

References

Abel, Richard L. (1989). *American lawyers*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Achilles, Charles M. (1987). Unlocking some mysteries of administration: A reflective perspective. In Griffiths, Daniel, Stout, Robert, & Forsyth, Patrick, (eds.) *Leaders for tomorrow's schools: Report of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

American Bar Association, Task Force on Law Schools and the Profession (1992). *Statement of fundamental lawyering skills and professional values*. Chicago: ABA, Section on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar.

Barnett, Bruce G.; McQuarrie, Frank O.; & Norris, Cynthia J., (eds.) (1991). *The moral imperatives of leadership: A focus on human decency*. Arlington, VA: National Policy Board for Educational Administration.

Barrows, H. (1984). A specific problem-based, self-directed learning method designed to teach medical problem-solving skills, and enhance knowledge retention. In Schmidt, H., & deVolder, M., (eds.) *Tutorials in problem-based learning*. Masstricht, The Netherlands: Van Gorcum.

Barth, Roland (1990). *Improving schools from within*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Bastian, Ralph J., (1969). *Priesthood and ministry*. Glen Rock, NJ: Paulist Press.

Becker, Howard S.; Geer, Blanche; Hughes, Everett C.; & Strauss, Anselm L. (1961). *Boys in white: Student culture in medical school*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Bellow, Gary (1977). Clinical studies in law. In Gillers, Stephen (ed.) *Looking at law school*. (3rd ed.) New York: Penguin Books.

Bok, D. (1989). A new way to train doctors. In Schmidt, H., Lepkin, M., deVries, M., & Greep, J. (eds.) *New directions for medical education*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Bridges, Edwin M., & Hallinger, Philip, (1993). Problem-based learning in medical and managerial education. In Hallinger, Philip, Leithwood, Kenneth, & Murphy, Joseph, (eds.) *Cognitive perspectives on educational leadership*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Brillinger, Margaret F., & Pocock, Sharon C., (1992). Learning needs of clergy who have not participated in continuing education events for clergy. *Canadian Journal of University Continuing Education, 19* (2), 25-35.

Broadhead, R. (1983). *The private lives and professional identities of medical students*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction.

Bucher, Rue, & Stelling, Joan G., (1977). *Becoming professional*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Chambers, David L. (1990). The first year courses: What's there and what's not. In Gillers, Stephen, (ed.) *Looking at law school*. (3rd ed.) New York: Penguin Books.

Claessen, H., & Boshuizen, H. (1985). Recall of medical information by students and doctors. *Medical Education, 19*, 61-67.

Coles, C. (1985). Differences between conventional and problem-based curricula in their students' approaches to studying. *Medical Education, 19*, 308-309.

Daresh, John C., (1986). Support for beginning principals: First hurdles are the highest. *Theory Into Practice, 25* (3), 168-173.

_____. (1990), Professional formation and a tri-dimensional approach to the preservice preparation of school administrators. In Wendel, Frederick C., & Bryant, Miles T. (eds). *Reform in administrator preparation programs: Individual perspectives*. University Park, PA: University Council for Educational Administration.

Daresh, John C., & Playko, Marsha A. (1989). *In search of critical skills for beginning principals*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the University Council for Educational Administration, Scottsdale, AZ.

_____ (1990) Mentoring for effective school administration. *Urban Education*, 25 (1), 43- 54.

_____ (1992). *The professional development of school administrators: Preservice, induction, and inservice applications*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

_____ (1994). *Leaders helping leaders: A practical guide to administrative mentoring*. New York: Scholastic.

_____ (1994). Aspiring and practising principals' perceptions of critical skills for beginning leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration, 32* (1), 35-45.

Davis, Milton S., (1968). Attitudinal and behavioral aspects of the doctor-patient relationship as expressed and exhibited by medical students and their mentors. *Journal of Medical Education, 43*, 337-343.

deVolder, M., & deGrave, W. (1989). Approaches to learning in a problem-based medical programme: A developmental study. *Medical Education, 23*, 262-264.

Diederich, Anne Marie (1986). *Tasks while braiding the tiger's stripes: The transition to the high school principalship*. Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University.

Duke, Daniel (1984). *Transition to leadership: An investigation of the first year principalship*. Portland, OR: Lewis and Clark University.

Dykstra, Craig (1987). The formative power of the congregation. *Religious Education, 82* (4), 530-546.

Ehrlich, Thomas, & Hazard, Jr., Geoffrey C. (1975). *Going to law school? Readings on a legal career.* Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

Flexner, Abraham (1910). *Medical education in the United States and Canada: A Report to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.* New York: Arno Press.

Gerber, Rudolph J., (1987). *Lawyers, courts, and professionalism: The agenda for reform.* New York: Greenwood Press.

Gillers, Stephen (ed.) (1990). *Looking at law school.* (3rd ed.) New York: Penguin Books.

Greeley, Andrew (1971). *Priests in the United States.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Gresso, Donn (1986). *Principal preparation programs: A request for proposals.* (Unpublished paper). St. Louis: Danforth Foundation.

Griffiths, Daniel; Stout, Robert; & Forsyth, Patrick (eds.) (1986). *Leaders for America's schools: The Report and papers of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration.* Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Haber, David, & Cohen, Julius, (eds.) (1969). *The law school of tomorrow: The projection of an ideal.* New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.

Hafferty, Frederick W. (1991). *Into the valley: Death and the socialization of medical students.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Hall, Douglas T., (1988). *Career development in organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey Bass, Inc.

Hallinger, Philip; Leithwood, Kenneth; & Murphy, Joseph, (eds.) (1993). *Cognitive perspectives on educational leadership.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Hoffmann, Stephen A., (1986). *Under the ether dome: A physician's apprenticeship.* New York: Citadel Press Books.

Hughes, Everett C.; Thorne, Barrie; DeBaggis, Agostino M.; Gurin, Arnold; & Williams, David, (1973). *Education for the professions of medicine, law, theology, and social welfare.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Johnson, William R., (1978). *Schooled lawyers: A study in the clash of professional cultures.* New York: New York University Press.

Kaufman, A. (1985). *Implementing problem-based medical education.* New York: Springer.

Kendall, Patricia, (1961). Impact of training programs on the young physician's attitudes and experiences. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 176* (12), 992-997.

Klass, Perri, (1987). *A not entirely benign procedure*. New York: Penguin Books.

Knafl, Kathleen, & Burkett, Gary (1975). Professional socialization in a surgical specialty: Acquiring medical judgment. *Social Science and Medicine, 9*, 397-404.

Konner, Melvin (1987). *Becoming a doctor: A journey of initiation in medical school*. New York: Penguin Books.

Kottkamp, Robert, & Osterman, Karen, (1993). *Reflective practice for educators*. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.

Krause, Elliott A., (1971). *The sociology of occupations*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

Langone, John (1995). *Harvard Med*. New York: Crown Publishers, Inc.

Leithwood, Kenneth, & Steinbach, Rosanne (1995). *Expert problem solving: Evidence from school and district leaders*. Albany: SUNY Press.

Lortie, Dan C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological inquiry*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Marion, Robert (1991). *Learning to play God: The coming of age of a young doctor*. New York: Fawcett Crest Books.

Marrion, Barbara A. (1983). *A naturalistic study of the experiences of first year elementary school principals*. Ph.D. dissertation: University of Colorado at Boulder.

May, Gerald D., (1982). *Care of mind, care of spirit: Psychiatric dimensions of spiritual direction*. San Francisco: Harper and Row.

Merton, Robert K. (1957). *Social theory and social structure*. New York: Free Press.

Milstein, Michael; Bobroff, Betty; & Restine, Nan (1991). *Internship programs in educational administration*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Mizrahi, Terry (1986). *Getting rid of patients: Contradictions in the socialization of medical students*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.

Moore, Wilbert E., (1976). *The professions: Roles and rules*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Murphy, Joseph (1990). Preparing school administrators for the twenty-first century: The reform agenda. In Mitchell, Brad, & Cunningham, Luvern L., (eds.) *Educational leadership and changing contexts of families, communities, and schools*. (89th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

_____ (1992). *The landscape of leadership preparation: Reframing the education of school administrators*. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.

_____ (ed.) (1993). *Preparing tomorrow's school leaders: Alternative designs*. University Park, PA: University Council for Educational Administration.

Natelson, Benjamin H. (1990). *Tomorrow's doctors: The path to successful practice in the 1990s*. New York: Plenum Press.

Nockels, A. (1981). *The problems, issues, and strategies of the first year secondary headship*. Unpublished paper. Report to the Oxfordshire Local Education Authority (UK).

Nosow, Sigmund, & Form, William H., (eds.) *Man, work, and society*. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

O'Brien, Raymond C., (1985). *Legal education and religious perspective*. Bethesda, MD: Cambridge Books.

Packer, Herbert L., & Ehrlich, Thomas (1972). *New directions in legal education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Pavalko, Ronald M., (1988). *Sociology of occupations and professions*. (2nd ed.). Itasca, IL: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc.

Ramsdell, Melissa (ed.) (1994). *My first year as a doctor: Real-world stories from America's M.D.'s*. New York: Walker and Company.

_____, Lepkin, M., deVries, M., & Greep, J., (1989). *New directions for medical education*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Schon, Donald A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*. New York: Basic Books.

_____ (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, Inc.

Shapiro, Eileen C., & Lowenstein, Leah D. (eds.) (1977). *Becoming a physician: Development of values and attitudes in education*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Company.

Simenhoff, Mark (1993). *My first year as a lawyer*. New York: Walker and Company.

Stevenson, Cynthia (1995). Certification to licensure in Colorado. *Design for Leadership, 5* (4): 3,7.

Sussman, Lynne (1985). *The principal's first year: The mutual process of developing leadership*. Ed.D. dissertation: Harvard University.

Synod of Catholic Bishops, (1990). *Instrumentum Laboris: The formation of priests in circumstances of the present day*. Rome: The Synod.

Thompson, James D.; Avery, Robert W.; & Carlson, Richard. (1962). *Occupations, personnel, and careers*. Pittsburgh: Administrative Science Center, University of Pittsburgh.

Turner, L. T. (1981). *Preparation for headship*. B.Phil. (Ed.) dissertation: University of Birmingham (UK).

Warren, Michael (1987). Religious formation in the context of social formation. *Religious Education, 82* (4), 515-528.

Weindling, Dick, and Earley, Peter (1987). *Secondary headship: The first years*. Philadelphia: NFER Nelson.

Westerhoff, John (1987). Formation, education, and instruction. *Religious Education, 82* (4), 578-591.

Williams, Raymond (1961). *The long revolution*. New York: Columbia University Press.

APPENDIX I

Example of a Medical School Plan of Studies

Indiana University School of Medicine Curriculum
(Doctor of Medicine Degree)

The major objectives of the curriculum are summarized as follows:

1. Concentration on "core material," both in the preclinical (basic science) and clinical years.
2. Early introduction of the students as a functioning part of the medical team, to the patient, through an intensive and multidepartmental "introduction to medicine."
3. Encouragement of an early medical career choice by the student, through the guidance of a strong faculty advising system.
4. Extensive elective experiences during the last year of the four year curriculum, including an opportunity to restudy special areas of both the basic and clinical sciences. One of the major goals of the elective program is to promote greater participation by students in their own educational planning and encourage continuing self-education during their entire medical careers.

Current Curriculum Requirements

First Year
- Biochemistry
- Microbiology
- Gross Anatomy
- Histology
- Physiology
- Neurobiology
- Introduction to Medicine I: Patient-Doctor Relationship

Second Year
- Pharmacology
- General Pathology
- Medical Genetics
- Systemic Pathology
- Introduction to Medicine II: History-Taking and Physical Diagnosis
- Biostatistics

Third Year
- Current Issues in Medicine
- 3 units Medicine
- 1 1/2 units OB/GYN
- 1 1/2 units Psychiatry
- 2 units Pediatrics
- 2 units Surgery
- 1 unit Family Medicine

Fourth Year
- Biomedical Paper
- 2 units Surgical Specialties
- 1 unit Neurosensory
- 1 unit Radiology
- 6 months/units electives

The curriculum schedule is included to illustrate the discipline areas for each year. The schedule of courses for the first and second years at each of the Centers for Medical Education may differ because some are on a semester schedule and others are on a quarter schedule. This arrangement, while retaining much of a typical schedule with some integration across disciplines in the basic medical sciences, promotes interdisciplinary teaching in the second year. It introduces an eleven-month "core" clerkship in the third year and a fourth year of "core" clerkships and electives. Extensive and varied elective opportunities are available.

At Indiana University, challenging opportunities geared to varied backgrounds, experience, and demonstrated abilities are provided for each student. Most departments offer honors programs in which superior students are presented with the option of independent study and supervised individual experience. Extensive use is made of seminars, project laboratories, small-group discussions, and guest speakers. Correlation conferences and clinical seminars continually assist the student in evaluating and integrating his or her education.

APPENDIX II

Example of a Law School Plan of Studies

University of Cincinnati College of Law Curriculum

Objectives:

The purpose of the academic program at the University of Cincinnati College of Law is to provide our students with an opportunity to equip themselves for effective and creative participation in the roles lawyers play in our society. This is completed through a curriculum that requires 88 semester hours for graduation.

The College recognizes that the academic program must provide graduates with substantive knowledge, ethical sensitivity, and analytical and practical skills. This combination will enable them to function competently in the period immediately following admission to the bar. This knowledge base will also assist graduates as they grow and adapt as law and society develop, and as the roles they play and the context in which they play them change over substantial periods of time.

The academic program, therefore, is designed to reflect the philosophy that, at its best, legal education should broaden, rather than narrow, the intellectual and moral horizons of College of Law graduates.

Current Curriculum Requirements

First Year
(All courses are required)

Fall Semester	*credit hours*	*Spring Semester*	*credit hours*
Contracts	4	Criminal Law	3
Civil Procedure I	3	Civil Procedure II	3
Torts I	3	Torts II	2
Constitutional Law I	3	Constitutional Law II	3
Legal Research, Writing and Advocacy	2	Legal Research, Writing and Advocacy	2
Introduction to Law	1	Property	3

Second and Third Year

After the first year, all courses are elective with the exceptions of Professional Responsibility and two writing requirements, which may be taken in either the second or third year. Legal Drafting and Trial Practice are limited to third year students.

I. Business, Commercial and Labor

Business	*Commercial*
Corporations I	Commercial Paper
Corporations II	Secured Transitions
Agency-Partnership Law	Debtor-Creditor Law
Legal Accounting	Antitrust Law
International Business Transactions	Bankruptcy
Product Liability	Sales
Law and Economics	Banking Law
Securities Regulation	Food, Drug, and Safety Laws
Mergers and Acquisitions	

Corporate Transactions and Drafting
Insider Trading
European Community Law

Labor
Labor Law I
Arbitration and Collective Bargaining
Labor Law I
Public Sector Labor Law

II. Property

Environmental
Environmental Law I
Environmental Law II
Environmental Enforcement

General Property
Estates and Trusts
Real Estate Transactions
Personal Property

Public Lands and Natural Resources
Land Use Planning
Government Regulation

Intellectual Property
Introduction to Intellectual Property
Copyright Law
Patent Law

III. Individual Rights and Liberties

Advanced Problems in Constitutional Law
Pursuit of Economic Subsistence Rights
Criminal Procedure I
Criminal Procedure II
Sentencing, Corrections and Habeas Corpus
Employment Discrimination
Employment Discrimination
Education Law
First Amendment
Problems in Litigating Civil Rights
Immigration Law and Policy
Sex-Based Discrimination
Juvenile Law
Military Law
Human Rights Seminar
Poverty and the Law
Civil Liberties

IV. Tax

Federal Income Taxation
Federal Estate and Gift Taxation
Advanced Federal Income Taxation
Partnership Tax
Tax Policy
Advanced Corporate Taxation
Tax Procedure
Estate Planning
Business Planning
Corporate Tax

V. Litigation and Skills

Litigation
Evidence
Pre-Trial Practice
Appellate Practice and Procedure
Appellate Advocacy
Remedies
Trial Practice
Conflict of Laws
Complex Litigation
Advanced Evidence

Skills
Supervised Writing
Individual Research
Interviewing, Counseling and Negotiating
Legal Drafting
Negotiations
Statutory Construction and Legislative Drafting
Corporate Transactions and Drafting
Extern Program

VI. Perspective

American Legal History
History and Theory of the Law of Corporations
Law and Economics
Supreme Court Seminar
Comparative Law
Public International Law
Law and Society
English Legal History
Jurisprudence
Legal Imagination

VII. Specialty

Admiralty
Law and Psychiatry
AIDS Seminar
Entertainment Law
Health Care Law
Indian Law

VIII. Government

Statutory Construction and Legislative Drafting
Pursuit of Neutral Government through Constitutional Law
Administrative Law
Constitution and Foreign Relations Power
Advanced Problems in Constitutional Law
Federal Jurisdiction
State and Local Government